

THE
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For **OCTOBER, 1784.**

An Historical and Political View of the Constitution and Revolutions of Geneva, in the Eighteenth Century. Written originally in French, by Francis D'Ivernois, Esq. LL. D. (late Citizen of Geneva) and translated by John Farrell, A. M. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Cadell.

TO have been a citizen of Geneva was once the pride and boast of its inhabitants; if it was not preferred to every title, it was always added, and the list was incomplete, while this favourite distinction was absent. Rousseau, the visionary and speculative Rousseau, the sagacious and attentive De Luc, as well as the present respectable author, shew what talents will frequently arise in states, unfettered by the trammels of despotism; and point out also the influence of circumstances and situations, in calling forth those talents into a larger circle, which might have only illuminated the sphere of a diminutive republic. This work of Mr. D'Ivernois contains the lamentations of a soldier, whose efforts have been defeated by superior powers: they are warm, animated, and enthusiastic; his grief is calm, manly, and dignified. He traces the corruptions of the constitution of Geneva to their source; he detects the latent seed, and follows its spreading branches, till they obscure every remnant of liberty. The obscurity is now indeed complete, though the subsequent operations are not described. We are led to expect a second volume; if it is delayed, it will probably give the last tint to the picture; and we shall then see Geneva not only virtually, but formally, under the dominion of France.

The politics of princes are dark and intricate; puzzled in mazes, and perplexed with errors. When enmities were deeply rooted, when the spark of animosity blazed frequently into a destructive conflagration, each was a check on his neighbour; and one was unwilling to explain, what the other might not patiently hear. In these cases, little states

were protected by a mutual jealousy. Those which were not formidable in themselves, might add to the balance already preponderating; and those, whose powers were diminished by intestine commotions, might unite them on a prospect of immediate danger. But, when war began to lose its terrors, and the machinations of the cabinet were more destructive than the carnage of the field; when refinement and philosophy cooled the passions, and steeled the heart against the feelings of humanity, sovereigns agreed to divide what each could not obtain: Poland was dismembered; Geneva is *protected* by France; and Switzerland yet possesses a doubtful and suspicious liberty. The time is probably not far distant, when more neighbouring states may be divided among their powerful protectors. If we can judge of the future by the past; if similar situations produce similar consequences, the event is certain. Perhaps the share of the spoil is not yet settled; from the moment that the division of the prey is ascertained, *that* moment is the last of their political existence. But to return to our present task.

The work before us is entitled to considerable praises: though it contain the private dissensions of one little republic, yet it should be remembered, that they are the struggles of freedom against the worst of despotism, aristocracy. The narrative is clear and spirited; the whole is easily comprehended at one glance, and affords an useful lesson to republics, to curb the aspiring spirits, who aim at distinctions inconsistent with general liberty. When these luxuriant weeds have destroyed the useful plants, and introduced a general confusion, an ambitious sovereign will always be at hand to meditate and to protect, but in reality to conquer. The states of Greece were thus subjugated by Rome; England was, in this way, subdued by the Saxons: we need not add more modern instances, we fear they will be yet more numerous. The dedication to the French monarch is, in our opinion, unequalled. It is the language of one who feels his innate equality, who deprecates the unjust exertions of that power which alone distinguishes the monarch from the man. The following picture is drawn with glowing colours; it is a favourable likeness, but still it is a true one.

“ Let your majesty condescend to interrogate those foreigners, their testimony will be, that these citizens support the state by active industry and flourishing commerce; that the astonishing degree of prosperity to which they have raised a country destitute of every local resource, has rendered it an object dear to their affections, dear perhaps to their pride; that the greater exertions they have made for this their country, the more they think

think they owe it; sensible that the fruits of their industry are grafted on the tree of liberty, deprived of which, abject indigence must be their portion; and that it is by this ever-active sentiment they are animated, from generation to generation, to struggle against the attacks made on their constitution.

‘In fine, those foreigners, if they have penetrated into the interior economy of our families, will further attest, that notwithstanding the ridicule thrown by some opulent men on a rigid observance of domestic virtues, they have seen amongst us many happy spouses, few inclined to celibacy, and many young and sober fathers; that education is daily making rapid strides towards perfection; that virtue is revered by the men, practised by the women; that mothers find no guardian necessary for the honour of their daughters; and that the liberty of both is its only security.’—

‘The most alarming preparations surround our frontiers. Our neighbours, instead of the olive-branch of negotiation, brandish before our eyes the sword of war. What have we done, what crime of ours can justify such measures? Sire, we neither sue for pardon nor mercy; it is justice we implore. We claim the support of a constitution that is our right, that is displeasing to the rich, and that we only asked to preserve unaltered. But let us once be left to ourselves, let ambition have no foreign assistance to rely on, and peace will soon be restored by mutual sacrifices; never would it have been disturbed, without the hope of that assistance.’—

‘We are told from every quarter that resistance will terminate in our destruction. Without doubt; we are conscious of our weakness, of the smallness of our number, and the impossibility of succeeding: but we have before our eyes our rights, our oaths, those of free nations, and the title of citizens of Geneva, of which we are determined to be worthy to our latest breath. If we must renounce our laws, we shall only have to desert a country we were unable to defend, or to pay it our last duty by falling with it, and honourably losing an existence, which, destitute of liberty, would be ignominious to us.’

We cannot enter into the detail of the constitution; of the various changes which the ambition of individuals have introduced; or of the amendments occasioned by those mediations, *real* mediations, which have, at different times, been found necessary. The great outline of the constitution is, that every freeman, above the age of twenty-five, composes a part of the General Council: this body again delegates its powers to the Grand Council, or Council of Two Hundred; to another Council, or the Council of Sixty, who are employed chiefly in foreign affairs; and to the Petty Council, Council of Twenty-five, or Senate, for they have indifferently all these appellations. Each of these bodies originally depended on

the people; but the first innovation was, that the senate and grand council should elect each other, without any appeal to them; and at last the senate arrogated the supreme dominion. They depended only on themselves, though they apparently rested their authority on the grand council, who were almost beings of their will. It is not uncommon to find authority in the hands of those who are most constantly engaged in business. They are always ready to take advantage of every neglect, of every inattention. Custom soon establishes a right, and the innovation is complete. This has been the regular and gradual progress in every nation; and, though human ingenuity has been employed in obviating the abuse, yet every attempt has hitherto failed. The whole is so much interwoven with the nature of government, and with human depravity, that it is one of the political diseases which the ablest physician cannot cure, and which the most anxious unremitting attention can only delay. It is this principle which has actuated modern reformers in their attempts to diminish the duration of our present parliaments. Alas, the remedy is not equal to the disease! It would be effectual, if they could at the same time diminish the influence of corruption, if they could encourage again the growth of either public virtue or public spirit. The old age of kingdoms cannot be restored.

After the commotions had arisen to an alarming height, the mediation of France, and of the Swiss cantons of Bern and Zurich, were requested. The minister of France was, at that time, the pacific, the calm, the equitable Fleuri. 'Count,' said he to the ambassador, (count de Lautrec) 'forget not that the people never is wrong.' The ambassador was ordered by the king to 'transact, in his name, whatever was most becoming a mediator, who had an equal affection for both parties;' and he performed it. Perhaps nothing can be added to this eulogy by the most flattering panegyrist. In his attempts, he was eagerly seconded by the other mediators; and, though they were limited by parties and prejudices, they again procured a dawn of public liberty, which might have arisen to meridian splendour. But the causes which first produced the disorders continued to operate; and, in a little time, scarcely a shadow of their work remained. The mediators again returned in 1766, but with different views and under different auspices, and the success was not equally salutary. The encroachments of the councils on each other were indeed for a time prevented; personal liberty seemed to be restored; congratulations were every where heard; but the seeds of a more fatal revolution were sown, which has at last terminated in the destruction of liberty. *That* moment was premature; and the for-

forbearance of the French minister was not owing to his humanity, but to the representations of other powers. 'Let men do what they will, said Rousseau, he that knows how to die is ever free.' At this period, the volume before us terminates.

The whole subject is at once explained by Rousseau. 'In Geneva, says he, they have always been led astray by appearances, and neglected essentials: too great pains have been taken about the general councils, and too little about its members. Authority should have been less, and liberty more their object.' Our author's account of him may be worth extracting.

'J. J. Rousseau was come to Geneva to return to the protestant communion, from whence he had strayed through the folly of youthful days spent in romantic wandering. He studied in the constitution of his country those great principles of political economy, that he soon after displayed, and which increased that celebrity so much lamented by him towards the close of his life. During a residence of some months at Geneva, he preferred the society of private citizens to that of men in power, whose pomp and principles he held in detestation. His attachment to the people, the value he set on the title of citizen of Geneva, the esteem of his countrymen, his connection with the quondam deputy Deluc, his fondness for political equality, and his contempt for the rich, which he sometimes carried too far, drew on him the hatred of the partizans of aristocracy, who have been without doubt the real authors of all his misfortunes.'

It was the edict of 1738, during the first important revolution under the mediation of France, which established their staple manufactory of watch-making. That edict granted the natives the privilege of setting up for themselves; and each individual found in it 'considerable resources: the artist rose to be nearly on a level with the merchant, and was enabled to throw off the yoke of the rich.' We hope that the emigrated manufacturers will be equally successful in Ireland.

Some striking parts of this volume are the bold, manly replies of the Genevese. 'Do you know, sirs,' said the chevalier de Beauteville, the mediator from France, in the year 1766, 'that I am the representative of the king my master? Do you know, sir, said one of the republicans, that we are the representatives of our equals?'

In October 1767, the citizens remonstrated to the senate. This production must have been truly admirable: the extracts are powerful and simple, clear and energetic. What a picture is the following!

'The citizens delivered it to the four syndics, filing off two by two in their presence: one of them said, "the citizens you see before you are ready to sacrifice their lives in defence of their liberty." Another, "we demand the execution of our laws." A third, "we are tired of asking peace, we shall at length require it." "The thunder rolls and is ready to burst," exclaimed a fourth. One of them said but this word, "Reflect."

'The mediators last resource was openly to threaten the citizens with pronouncing a sovereign judgment on the questions by which the republic was agitated, and enforcing the execution of that judgment. "The first question of all," replied one of the representants, "shall be to judge whether there was any foundation for your interposition itself *."

Though we would be understood to recommend this book for the form, it must be owned that we cannot answer for the fidelity of the relation. Men of warm passions, deeply interested in their narrative, often deviate, without intention, from an exact representation. In the present instance, it is a venial, perhaps a laudable error, since it results from a partiality which all must approve. But we have only this reason to suspect our author of misrepresentation: with all his enthusiasm, he seems to be candid; and, under all his misfortunes, the misfortunes of his country, he preserves a steady calmness, which should be the peculiar characteristic of an historian.

A Concise History of Knighthood. Containing the Religious and Military Orders, which have been instituted in Europe. By Hugh Clark. Two Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.

THIS ingenious engraver has already introduced us to heraldry in general, and to the peerage of England: he now endeavours to revive the remembrance of those ancient institutions in which religion, policy, and gallantry, were equally employed to interest and excite minds, only accessible to these, or motives equally powerful. The institutions of chivalry, we have already observed, were of the highest importance in the dark and ignorant ages; and the different orders into which they were divided, were so many allurements, contrived by sovereigns or prelates, to attach knights to their persons and services. They are now subjects of curiosity only, except when they are introduced to explain badges and armorial bearings on ancient monuments: we indeed preserve the names and the distinctions, but the spirit is dissipated.

* "These forty-two years I have been condemned to die," replied another citizen to Heuin, who threatened him with death.

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In another place the source of that powerful attraction, which can still make an ancient order the object of attention; which can even institute new ones; that shall be caught at with equal eagerness, might be a curious subject of enquiry. The splendour of illustrious names, and the spirit of emulation to be thought worthy of such society, may have some share in the former; but the latter can be resolved only into a trifling ambition, and a desire of minute distinctions.

Our author gives us a short account of the principal orders of knighthood. In some instances he is defective, sometimes mistaken, and sometimes erroneous. In general however, though concise, he is exact and satisfactory. His engravings are sufficiently elegant, and unusually distinct, from the enlarged size; but he only represents the collars of the order; the caps and surcoats are also frequently essential to the distinction.

We were rather surprised at his omitting the first Christian order, if it may be styled one, of the Golden Angel, instituted by Constantine. It is taken from the well known story of the appearance of an angel with a cross to the emperor, previous to his engagement with Maxentius. Whether it is true or not is of little consequence; but it was certainly the origin. There seems to be some other omissions; though, as the author has sometimes changed the ancient titles, we cannot easily ascertain them. The order of the Ship *Argo* at Naples, for instance, he has changed to that of St. Nicholas, and the emblem is a ship only, not a ship in a storm. The order of the Dog he has joined with the Dog and the Cock; though they were instituted at very different periods. These are very slight blemishes; but we are cautious of charging him with omissions, while they may have passed us unperceived under other names. There seem to be some traces of a different order from that of the Thistle, in Scotland. It is perceivable in a portrait of James the Vth, and is a picture of St. Andrew, suspended by a collar composed of some plant; a cross, with a crown of gold in the middle of it, is also born on the left shoulder. We chiefly mention it as a circumstance little known, and probably worth enquiry.

We do not mean to object to our author the conciseness of his accounts, and to suppose him defective, because he has not collected every circumstance relative to many trifling orders; but we think his account of the Knights *Banæret* both defective and erroneous. We had occasion to mention the subject in our last volume, page 165; and shall now shortly give an account of the whole institution. The original of a knight banneret was, as there mentioned, that of a knight

qualified to carry the general standard, which differed from the standard of a particular lord, by its figure: the one was square, the other divided in the middle, so as to form two pennons. The qualification was either a number of lancemen, at least fifty, when the chief of this little army seems to have been entitled to demand the distinction; or personal bravery, when the title was usually conferred in the field. Our author confines the rank to the second, and mentions only one pennon in the ancient standard; but it usually contained two. There is an instance in Froissart, of the requisition of sir John Chandos, probably one of the original knights of the Garter, to the Black Prince, to obtain this title. 'Here, Sir, said he, is my banner! will you please to cut off its pennons, that I may bear it to-day; I have, by the grace of God, sufficient power to support it.' The prince, having performed the ceremony, replied, 'Sir John, may this turn to your glory, happiness, and advantage! may you, by your gallant actions, prove yourself a brave man!' We have not produced the many authorities before us, in support of our opinion, for it was unnecessary. We need only add that, in this view, the revival of the title, at the naval review at Portsmouth, and the intention of bestowing it on the late admiral Parker, after his engagement off the Dogger Bank, were both strictly proper.

In some instances, our author seems to have exalted common societies into the rank of orders: in others, particular badges, which were intended only for the distinction of parties. Of the first, we meet with an instance in the order of Fools, which was instituted by the duke of Cleves, in 1381, rather as a social company, than an order. The original grant is said still to exist in the archives of Cleves, and their day of meeting was the first Sunday after Michaelmas day. If it had been the first of April, it might have explained the source of a simple custom still continued. In this grant, Adolphus mentions, that 'the society was instituted on account of the particular affection the members had for each other. And, if any of the brethren are at enmity with each other, the society shall labour from break of day, the Friday preceding the meeting, till the night of the Friday subsequent to it, to reconcile them.' Besides, contrary to the custom of chivalry, a king or president was chosen every year.

Instances of particular badges being mistaken for orders, are, among others, those of the reel and lionsess. They distinguished the different partizans of those who aimed at the crown of Naples after the death of Louis III. who was killed in attempting to obtain that of Hungary, about the beginning
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of the sixteenth century. This mistake our author seems to have committed by following his copies too implicitly.

But, independent of a few minute errors, this work is of real service to the English reader, who has never yet had any assistance of this kind in his own language; and we have little doubt but that it will meet with suitable encouragement. His account of the English orders is careful and exact.

As our own institutions are most generally interesting, we shall select a specimen of our author's labours from the first part. We choose the Thistle, as its institution is less known, and the account is more concise than any other.

‘As to the original of this ancient order, John Lesly, bishop of Ross, in his History of Scotland, says, it took its beginning from a bright cross in heaven, in form like that whereon St. Andrew the apostle suffered martyrdom, which appeared to Achaius king of Scots, and Hungus king of the Picts, the night before the battle was fought betwixt them and Athelstane king of England, as they were on their knees at prayer; when St. Andrew, their tutelary saint, is said also to have appeared, and promised to these kings that they should always be victorious when that sign appeared; and the next day these kings prevailing over king Athelstane in battle, they went in solemn procession, barefooted to the kirk of St. Andrew, to return thanks to God and his apostle for their victory, vowing that they and their posterity would ever bear the figure of that cross in their ensigns and banners; the place where this battle was fought retains to this day the name of Athelstane's Ford in Northumberland.

‘James the Fifth king of Scotland, in 1534, received the order of the Golden Fleece from Charles V. emperor, as also that of St. Michael, from Francis I. king of France, in 1535, and that of the Garter, in 1536, from Henry VIII. king of England; and in memory of these orders received, keeping open court, he solemnized the several feasts of St. Andrew, the Golden Fleece, St. Michael, and St. George of England, that the several princes might know how much he honoured their orders; he set the arms of the princes (circled with their orders) over the gate of his palace at Linlithgow, with the order of St. Andrew.

‘About the time of the Reformation, this order was scarcely used, the knights then being so very zealous for the reformed religion, that they left their order; and it was not resumed till the reign of king James VII. who created eight knights, and for their better regulation signed a body of statutes, and appointed the royal chapel at Holyrood house, to be the chapel of the order, as it still continues, (and by his direction it was repaired, having a fine organ, with the sovereign and knights brethren stalls, and their respective banners hung over them:) and in 1688, the misfortunes of his reign preventing his completing that noble

noble design, it lay dormant till her late majesty queen Anne was pleased to sign another body of statutes, whereby it was restored to its ancient magnificence.*

This account differs in some respects from other authors, particularly in that part which relates to the restoration of the order; but Mr. Clark seems to have followed the best authorities. The reader will observe some little inaccuracies of the style, and probably be struck with the first paragraph, 'a period of a mile.'

*Ancient Metaphysics. Volume Third. Containing the History and Philosophy of Men. With a Preface, containing the History of Ancient Philosophy, both in ancient and later Times. 4to. 18s. in Boards. Cadell. **

THIS very benevolent and respectable author pursues his design with unremitting diligence, and labours for a careless and ungrateful age, which, we fear, will pay little attention either to the subject itself or his toilsome lucubrations. The study of effects is apparently more rational and certainly more useful than that of causes; but the ancient philosophy, though deficient in the former, deserves better treatment than it generally receives. It at least extends our prospects into the intellectual world; refines and improves the powers of the mind, and renders it more fit for its other pursuits. In short, if we deprive it of the merit of an end and aim, it is admirably adapted for a means. But it would be harsh to conclude, that Plato, that Aristotle and his five thousand commentators had, for successive ages, been only sharpening those tools with which his successors were to build. In this confused mass, there is still much useful knowledge; and the successive volumes of our author have greatly facilitated our access to a treasure which has been so generally despised. If this volume be not equal to those which preceded, it at least furnishes a powerful incitement to temperance and virtue; for Lord Monboddo labours to prove, that our animal powers are so far debased by luxury, that we are only the shadows of our ancestors; and the hyperboles of the poet, with the exaggerations of the ill-informed historian, are mixed together to support an hypothesis, founded neither on experience or reason, viz. that our ancestors were of a considerably greater bulk and strength, as well as of a longer life. But we must consider the contents of this volume in their proper order.

The chief object of the Preface is to delineate the history of the ancient philosophy; and, in tracing its origin, his lord-

* For an account of the former volumes, see Crit. Rev. vol. xlviii. p. 293; and vol. liv. p. 339, 421.

ship follows the common delusion of authors, by referring it to the Egyptians. We have often had occasion to hint at this subject, but never pursued it to any great extent, because the vague, indecisive nature of the evidence, on either side, renders it an useless attempt. We shall therefore only observe, that the incommunicative temper of the Egyptians probably was the first foundation of their character; and the travels of philosophers seemed to support it. We say seemed, for the little that was ever known to have been brought from Egypt is but a slender foundation; and there is much reason to suspect that this was rather calculated to advance the credit of the traveller, than to add to the stock of science. Pythagoras receives the warmest and most unreserved praises, for he took full draughts at the fountain head: the principal parts of Aristotle and Plato are said to be Pythagorean. Socrates, according to our author, was a man of great virtue and excellent understanding; but as he chiefly confined himself to recommend goodness, and dissuade from vice, he is styled only a lover of wisdom. He did not sublimely speculate on God, Nature and the Universe. Aristotle and Plato succeeded; and lord Monboddo gives some account of their principal works. He then pursues the Pythagoreans through changes, and in situations as wonderful as those which Pythagoras himself is said to have undergone. Porphyry and Jamblicus, in Egypt; Plutarch, Proclus, and his successors, in Greece, successfully flourished, and added to this kind of knowledge. The gradual accumulation was continued till the convulsions which happened from the invasions of the Turks; but the spark was still kept alive in the East, and even now, in the patriarch's university at Constantinople, the Greek language is so accurately taught and spoken, that they are able to distinguish between accent and quantity. So late as the year 1766, a system of logic was written in pure Attic Greek, by Eugenius Diaconus, a professor in the same university, but now a bishop in Russia. These facts are taken from the work before us. Our author then very shortly mentions the revival of the Greek philosophy in Europe, which was more particularly described in the last volume, on the Origin of Language.

Man is actuated by mind, or the intellectual principle; besides this, the matter of which he is composed, the principle by which he grows and is nourished, as well as that by which he feels and perceives, form the great outlines of the system. The two latter are distinguished in this work by terms vegetable and animal life; and, as every motion supposes the efficacy of mind, this kind is distinguished by the name of the elemental mind. The intellectual mind, which is the
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more sublime principle that connects us with the Deity, will be the subject of another volume. In that volume the gloomy prospects here held out to us, are reconciled to his goodness and providence. As the universe is a system 'an imperfect intelligence, united to animal life, must necessarily consume it; but in doing so, it is in its progress towards the greatest perfection its nature is capable of, and to which it will attain, if not in this life, at least in the life to come.'

The first book is on the Vegetable Life of Man; we think our author might have more correctly called it vegetative. His lordship chiefly distinguishes the nature of this kind of life; and endeavours to show that, though he had used the term elemental mind, there is in reality but one kind of mind. Indeed the subordinate sense of mind was fully explained in the former volumes; but he soon comes to his principal object, the animal life.

In this part of his work, lord Monboddo endeavours to prove, as we have already observed, that the present race is exceedingly corrupted; that our size is diminished, our powers enervated, and the period of our life curtailed. This artificial state is opposed to the natural, when every principle was in its highest perfection. Men in this state live without cloaths or houses, without the use of fire or speech, or of the arts depending on them. In short, the state of a savage is that of perfection; refinement and civilization are corruptions. In establishing this opinion, in which he only follows Rousseau, our author displays a very extensive benevolence, and an unbounded credulity. Where he can see no temptation to mislead, he implicitly believes; and, in one instance, has adduced a political irony as true history. We mean the ludicrous tract of Swift, 'It cannot rain but it pours,' which our author thinks contains some facts relating to the wild man, caught at Hanover, to be found in no other author. The following is quoted as a proof of this kind, of which every reader, not blinded by system, will perceive at once the tendency.

"—He further tells us, what is no where else to be found, 'that, in the circle at court, he endeavoured to kiss the young lady Walpole;—that he put on his hat before the king, and laid hold on the lord chamberlain's staff;—that he expressed his sensations by certain sounds, which he had framed to himself;—and, particularly, that he neighed something like a horse; in which way he commonly expressed his joy;—that he understood the language of beasts and birds, by which they express their appetites and feelings;—that his senses were more acute than those of the tame man;—and, lastly, that he could sing some tunes."

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The Oran Outang is also advanced to the rank of a human being, on the testimony of M. d'Obsonville; but we lately observed, in reviewing his work, that it was evidently, from his description, of the monkey race. It would lead us too far to examine this subject with care, and to compare the several accounts of Gesner, Bontius, Kóping, Dalin, &c. the greater part of which seem to have been unknown to our author. It would be indecent or impertinent to treat this respectable man with contempt or ridicule. We shall however mention our thoughts on this subject very concisely. If we consider only the animal functions, we may allow, that man, in a wild state, will excel us; that is, he will run faster; perhaps without the assistance of machinery, lift greater weights; and bear greater heats or cold with impunity. These advantages are not surely to be envied, in opposition to others which we need not enumerate. In every other respect, he is greatly inferior to many brutes: he is inferior even to sheep and horses, in a wild state; far below the dog and the elephant. But, in pursuit even of this very exceptionable position, our author descends to very incompetent evidence. The different monkeys on the coast of Africa, and the Indian islands, are brought to support his argument. The satyr of Angola is described by Tulpus, *Obs.* lib. iii. cap. 56; that of Nicobar by Kóping; both these are evidently monkeys. The troglodyte, though described, sometimes equivocally, by Bontius, yet is certainly very different from the human being. The different wild men, we mean those who have been forsaken in their early periods, are indeed human; but their powers and faculties are by no means enviable: we have different accounts before us, particularly the Irish sheep boy, in Tulpus; the two Pyrenean boys; and the girl of Campania; but would refer only to our author's account of the Hanoverian Peter, who scarcely possesses a spark of reason beyond a simple intuitive idea. The whole hypothesis is on a foundation so uncertain, that we must beg the reader's pardon for having at all enlarged on it. But we ought to add, that the whole is so amusing and agreeable, that if it were entirely a romance, it might deserve attention; though, on the contrary, many facts are new, curious, and accurate: the great mistake is in their tendency, and the conclusions drawn from them.

Our author, in pursuit of his whimsical hypothesis, examines the various natural faculties of men, and thinks them superior to those of every other animal; but, if we except the arts of ingenuity, which are not to be in this instance considered, he has not, in any respect, shown that they really are so. In the following extract, the reader will perceive the force

force of reason, in opposition even to a system; the credulity of our author in respect to those ages of which we have only imperfect traditions, and at the same time observe some facts of more importance.

‘ There is one thing to be observed of those acquired faculties of body, that they are wonderfully improved by a sense of honour, which is peculiar to man, and, as it is well known, will make him voluntarily endure the greatest pains, and even death itself. Now, every body knows that exercise is absolutely necessary for bringing those acquired bodily faculties to any degree of perfection, and even violent painful exercise. But no brute will endure pain voluntarily, nor any man who is yet but a mere animal, and has not formed that idea of the fair and the handsome, which is the foundation of the sense of honour; whereas the civilized man will, from that sense of honour, submit to the greatest pain and labour, in order to excel in any exercise which is honourable.

“ *Qui cupit opatam cursu contingere metam,
Multa tulit fecitque puer, sudavit et alfit.*”

‘ And this induces me to believe, that such a man as Achilles might have beat, in running, even an Oran Outan, or the savage of the Pyrenees, whom nobody could lay hold of, though that be the exercise in which savages excel the most, and though I am persuaded that the great Oran Outan of Angola is naturally stronger and swifter of foot than Achilles was, or than even the heroes of the preceding age, such as Hercules, and such as Theseus, Perithous, and others mentioned by Nestor. But Achilles had formed himself to running by great exercise, sudavit et alfit; whereas the Oran Outan never runs but for some necessary of life. And, if this be true of running, it will hold much more of such exercises as wrestling and boxing, of which the Oran Outan has no use at all; and, as to the exercise of arms, it is impossible that there could be any comparison betwixt them.

‘ It was, I imagine, by the superiority which the practice of exercises gave the ancient Greek heroes, that Theseus, and the other heroes of the age before the Trojan war, overcame those barbarous mountaineers mentioned by Nestor; and it was by the same superiority, joined, no doubt, with their superiority in arms and discipline, that, in later times, the Romans conquered the Cimbers and Teutons, the Gauls and Germans, men much superior to them in size and strength of body, and in fierceness. Plutarch says, that in the great battle with the Cimbers, which was fought a few days after the summer solstice, the Romans had been so exercised by Marius, that not a man was that day sweated, or so much as blown, while the barbarians were overcome by the heat, more than by the swords of the Romans.

* And here we may observe, in passing, the necessity of exercise, and even violent exercise, in hot countries, without which it was impossible the Romans could have withstood the barbarians, even with all their advantages of arms and discipline, and have fought, as Julius Cæsar did with the Helvetii, hand to hand, from morning to night, if their bodies had not been rendered firm and strong by constant hard exercise; the want of which made those great bodies of Gauls and Germans, in hot weather, soft and fluid, to use an expression of Livy, especially when they came into such a warm country as Italy. For I am persuaded, in their own cold country, they would have stood much better against the Romans; and if that great battle with the Cimbri had been fought in the northern parts of Germany, from whence they came, or even in Italy in the middle of winter, instead of the middle of summer, I should have thought that the event of it would have been very doubtful. It was not therefore without reason that the Greeks and Romans made the characteristic of a well exercised man, and a body in good order, the being able to endure the sun and dust. Without this, the ancient Greeks would not only have been unfit for war, but they could not have enjoyed their national pleasures of the games, and particularly the Olympic, which were celebrated in the middle of summer, and where the croud was so prodigiously great, and consequently the heat and dust, that I do not believe there is a modern man in Europe that could have borne to be a spectator there, much less to have been a performer.

In this chapter, our author mentions the bad effects of houses and clothing, on these animal functions, and the best means of obviating them.

His lordship next considers man in his natural state, and finds him of superior size and longer life. The nature of his proofs will be obvious, especially in the latter part; and this sacred ground must not be profaned. We may be allowed to observe, however, that our author's proofs are very defective; for, if civilization enervates a race, the weakness should be in proportion to the age of a nation; but sometimes, when other circumstances are apparently similar, the progression is very different. Thus the Greeks, in three centuries, even if we allow that the three ages of Nestor amounted to this period, degenerated more than the patriarchs did in one thousand eight hundred years. Many other objections will immediately occur to the discerning reader; nor is our author very consistent in different parts of his work. When he treats of the North American Indians, he is enraptured with their tenderness, their delicacy, and affection; he seems to consider them, if not in a state perfectly natural, yet very near to it; but then forgets

forgets the extraordinary size, great age, and other advantages peculiar to that state.

After having examined the several circumstances which influence man in the state of nature, and its various effects, lord Monboddo proceeds to the varieties of men. In this chapter he seems to believe every wild relation recorded by Herodotus and Strabo, and different authors, particularly the mermaids and mermen, of whose existence he produces several testimonies. We shall transcribe the evidence of Mr. Valentyn, minister of the Gospel at Amboyna and Banda.

“After the foregoing relations from reading and hearsay, the author, Mr. Valentyn, declares what he saw himself on his voyage from Batavia to Europe, in the year 1714. “In 12° 38' south latitude, on the first day of May, about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, I, the captain, purser, and mate of the watch, and a great many of the ship's company, it being very calm, and the sea smooth as glass, saw, about the distance of thrice the length of the ship from us, very distinctly, on the surface of the water, seemingly sitting with his back to us, and half the body above the water, a creature of a grizzled or gray colour, like that of a cod-fish skin. It appeared like a sailor, or a man sitting on something; and the more like a sailor, as on its head there seemed to be something like an English cap of the same gray colour. He sat somewhat bent, and we observed him to move his head from one side to the other, upwards of five and twenty times; so that we all agreed that it must certainly be some shipwrecked person. I, after looking some time, begged the captain to order them to steer the ship more direct towards it, being somewhat on the starboard side; which was done accordingly; and we had got within a ship's length of him, when the people on the forecastle made such a noise, that he plunged down, head foremost, and got presently out of our sight. But the man who was on the watch at the mast-head, declared he saw him for the space of two hundred yards, and that he had a monstrous long tail.

“I shall now only mention that, in the year 1716, the newspapers were every where full of a sea-man, who appeared in the month of January, near Ragusa, a small city on the Adriatick sea, the like of whom I never heard or read of. It had much the resemblance of a man, but it was near fifteen feet long. Its head was very large, and its feet and arms were well proportioned to its body. It appeared for several days running, and commonly came out of the sea about three o'clock in the afternoon, and walked with monstrous strides, sometimes in one, sometimes in another place, along the shore. People from far and nigh went to look at it; but they were so much afraid, that they kept a good distance from it, and many looked with spy-glasses. It often carried its hand above its head. The hideous noise it made could be heard at half a mile's distance, so that

that people in the neighbourhood were fore afraid of it. The various accounts given by those who saw it are so uniformly the same, that there is no room left to question the veracity of the story."

'Mr. Valentyn then concludes with saying, "if, after all this, there shall be found those, who disbelieve the existence of such creatures as sea-men or mermaids, of which we have at least given great reason to believe that there are, let them please themselves; I shall give myself no more trouble about them."

'To these accounts of mermaids, given by Valentyn, may be added what Bartholinus relates in his *Centuria Historiarum Anatomicarum Variorum*, printed at Haphnia 1654. p. 188, where he informs us, "that there was in his time one of these animals caught upon the coast of Brazil, and brought to Leyden, and there dissected in presence of one whom he names, viz. Johannes de Layda, who made him a present of a hand and a rib of the animal. He calls it a syren, and says it was the form of a woman down to the waist, below which it was nothing but a piece of unformed flesh, without any marks of a tail. He gives us the figure of the whole animal, both erect and swimming, as also of the hand which he got from de Layda."

'There is also, in a collection of certain learned tracts, written by John Gregory, A. M. and chaplain of Christ Church in Oxford, published at London in 1650, an account of a sea-animal of the human form, very much like a bishop in his pontificals. It is said to have been sent to the king of Poland in the year 1531, and to have lived for some time in the air; but it took the first opportunity of throwing itself into the sea. This story Gregory says he got from one Rondeletius, whose words he gives us, page 121, from which it appears that Rondeletius had the story only at second hand, from one Gisbert, a German doctor.

'But the most circumstantial story of all is that which is told by Maillet, in his *Teliamede*, (page 241, of the English translation), of a sea-man, that was seen by the whole crew of a French ship, off the coast of Newfoundland, in the year 1720, for two hours together, and often at the distance of no more than two or three feet. The account was drawn up by the pilot of the vessel, and signed by the captain and all those of the crew that could write, and was sent from Brest by monsieur Mautesfort, to the count de Maurepas, on the 8th of September 1725. The story is told with so many circumstances, that it is impossible there can be any deception or mistake in the case; but, if it be not true, it is as impudent a forgery as ever was attempted to be imposed on the public.'

It is remarked, in the last voyage of captain Cook, that if an accidental traveller had only seen the inhabitants of Sandwich islands masked, he would have described them in a manner which would have justly exposed him to ridicule; and the author adds, that the various accounts of historians may have

arisen from similar deceptions. The remark undoubtedly deserves attention; but in the earlier ages there does not seem to have been so respectable an excuse. Every traveller was expected to add his share to the stock of wonders, and he seldom failed to complete the task: what therefore was uncommon, was rendered marvellous; and when that was not sufficient, fancy formed what observation could not supply. This may be thought a gratuitous assertion; but it is remarkable that few people borrow wonders from their own countrymen. Lord Monbodo overlooks sir John Mandeville, and brings his authorities from France and Holland. He does not reflect on the silence of modern observers, but depends on early ages, on the vague information of tradition, and the indecise evidence of recollection. Credulity is an amiable error, since it arises from the feelings of honour and integrity; but some travellers accidentally, and some we fear wilfully, mislead. A single evidence, unless his character be very well established, is always suspicious: even Mr. Anderson's accuracy and discernment, in the late voyages, could not secure him from deception.

This volume is concluded with an apology for dwelling so long on the degeneracy of men; and we can forgive the author, since his views were just and even laudable. The dissertations are, I. Confirmations and Illustrations of what has been said in the preceding Volumes upon the Subject of the Principles of Sir Isaac Newton's Astronomy. II. An Enquiry into the Principle of the Motion of Bodies unorganized. III. The difference between Man and Brute further illustrated and explained, with additional Facts and Observations concerning the Ouran Outang and Peter the Wild Boy. It will be obvious, that these subjects will not admit of any farther detail in our limited circle; and unfortunately the author is so much absorbed in a vortex of his own formation, that while, on the one side, the world will not be misled by his errors, on the other, there is little prospect of reforming himself. We shall therefore wait for his future volume, which, from the nature of the subject will be necessarily more interesting.

An Enquiry into the principal Phænomena of Sounds and Musical Strings. By Matthew Young, B. D. 8vo. 4s. in Boards Robinson.

THE little progress of this branch of philosophy, from the time of sir Isaac Newton, is not easily explained. Like the theory of colours, that of sounds was supposed to have advanced so far as human reason could carry it; and, though inexplicable phænomena were constantly observed, their solution was supposed to be almost desperate. Of late, we have been

been attracted by more splendid subjects; have laboured in fields more fertile of laurels; and have been proportionally rewarded. The cause, or rather indeed the effect of these more flattering and delusive researches, have been the decline of mathematical knowledge; so that while the subject is farther removed from our view, we have become less capable of succeeding in the attainment. The present author attempts to bring us back to our original employments; but, though he has admirably succeeded in the object of his research, we fear that he will have few followers.

The chief end of the work is, to establish the truth of the forty-seventh proposition of the second book of the *Principia*, in which the author proves that 'when pulses are propagated through a fluid, each particle of the fluid, passing and returning, by a very short reciprocal motion, is always accelerated or retarded, according to the law of an oscillating pendulum; that is, of a pendulum vibrating in a cycloid. In fact, the great hinge of the proposition is, that a string, fixed at its two extremities, really composes two pendulums, which may be, in imagination, divided at the point of its greatest motion; and it were easy to show, that the connection only alters the *extent*, and by no means the *law* of the motion. Sir Isaac Newton however proceeds in a tract almost geometrical; but, as usual, is so concise and obscure, that various subsequent authors have considered his demonstration to be fallacious, and one that would equally tend to prove, that the pulses are propagated according to many contrary laws. But the demonstration is, in our opinion, strictly defensible; and we wish that our author had extended and explained it, instead of proceeding in a path somewhat different: but in either way, an important truth is established, and the credit of this great man supported.

Mr. Young first proves, that if the particles of air be agitated by any force, so as successively to set out with a motion varying by any given law, that the same motion will continue undisturbed, according to the same law. He then proves, with an almost unexampled strictness, that the particles of air, agitated by a vibrating string, do really set out with a motion varying according to the law of a cycloidal pendulum. The first part of the proposition is not entirely useless; for if it were proved that the string impelled the first particles in this manner, yet, in a medium of a different nature, the pulses may have been propagated according to very different laws. The want of attending to the peculiar constitution of the air, has frequently occasioned very absurd charges, and sometimes equally absurd defences. Air, for instance, has been considered as the medium of sound; but it has not been

observed that it is a medium of necessity rather than choice; for it is a very imperfect one. Yet we have very seldom compared the variations of sound, when conveyed through different media, or examined the celerity of their progress. Again, many authors have absolutely rejected the consideration of the air's elasticity, and the necessity of a plenum, or what is equivalent to one, in the propagation of sound. Sound could not move perhaps in bodies, contiguous in every point, but unless the spheres of repulsion of the particles of an elastic fluid at least communicated, and we have scarcely any evidence of another mode of resistance, no sound could be propagated.

After our author has examined this celebrated proposition, which should really be the corner-stone of all our enquiries into this subject, and which we cannot examine more particularly, without the diagram, he proceeds to other phenomena of sound. Its decay, he attributes to the imperfect elasticity of the air, and gives the most convincing arguments that the causes, adduced by other authors, are erroneous. The fact is certain, that the air is imperfectly elastic: in such a medium, sounds must necessarily decay, and they are continued with greater or less force, *cæteris paribus*, in proportion to the degree of elasticity in this surrounding element. The augmentation of sound in the speaking trumpet, is owing to the impulse of the voice against the sides of the tube; for every pulse of air, except in the axis of the tube, must be returned from the elastic metal, and become a new source of pulses, all of which at last unite in the axis, with the accumulated force. It is worth enquiry, whether the expanded part should not increase in its diameter more slowly, and be extended to greater length — Echos are the next subject of attention, which Mr. Young explains with his usual clearness. Every pulse of air, striking on a fixed elastic point, becomes the centre of a new series of pulses; so that if a sound is propagated from a centre, and its pulses strike against an obstacle in many points, an echo will be heard in that spot where the *sum* of the lines to the obstacle, and from thence to the spot, are equal. In this case, as sound, whether loud or soft, describes equal spaces in equal times, the number of lines compensate for the very imperfect elasticity of the reflecting body. Mr. Young next endeavours to answer the objections of some French philosophers, who, from the effect of echos, endeavour to show that sound is propagated in straight lines; but this is a very extensive subject, and one of the few, where we do not entirely coincide with our author. Its extent only prevents our enlarging on it.

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Our author next examines into the phenomena of musical strings; and we regret that it is not in our power to be so exact in our analysis, as the subject and the execution deserves: in every part almost, the reasoning depends on the diagrams. The following remark is more general, and we shall consequently select it.

‘ Since a string and its aliquot divisions are as the numbers 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, &c. the number of vibrations performed by them in a given time will be as the natural numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. Smith’s Harmonics, prop. 24. cor. 7. And consequently this series of sounds must contain all the possible varieties of intervals. If therefore every aliquot division produced a sensible effect by its vibration, we should hear in every musical string an infinite variety of chords, dissonant and consonant, in sharp and flat keys, at the same time. Thus would all the charms of melody be destroyed: and where many musical strings were sounding together, this confusion of consonance and dissonance would be still farther increased, and therefore much more should we have been deprived of the perception of harmony. We have here therefore an instance of the admirable skill with which the different parts of nature have been adapted to each other by their all-perfect Contriver; who as in other cases he appears to have consulted the welfare of his creatures, so from this instance we should infer, that he has not been less attentive to their innocent gratifications. Had the human ear been endued with a less degree of sensibility than it is at present possessed of, it is evident that we should have lost much of the delightful effects of harmony: and had it been endued with greater, we should have had no perception either of melody or harmony, as we have just now endeavoured to prove. It appears therefore, that the sensibility of the human ear has just attained the limit that contributes most to the pleasures of hearing.’

The explanation of sympathetic tones, according to Mr. Young, depends entirely on that proposition, which proves that pulses are propagated according to the same law by which they set out; and it explains, satisfactorily, all the variety of these very curious sounds. Secondary tones are of very difficult solution. It is well known, that on the existence of these Rameau has built his whole system of sound; though they were long since known to Mercennus and Des Cartes. It may be necessary to explain the subject: when the base notes of a harpsichord or violincello are struck, and the principal note has decayed, the octave above the principal, the 12th and 17th major, may be distinctly heard. Various explanations of this new sound have been given; but our author has shown

they are generally erroneous. He explains them more satisfactorily, for he shows the reason why the secondary tones are constant and peculiar. When the chord is struck, its pulses impinge on the neighbouring bodies, and are returned again to the string. Those which strike on its correspondent parts either increase it, when moving in the same direction; or diminish it, if in a contrary one. They are always the octave, twelfth, fifteenth, and seventeenth major; because these notes are produced by the half, third, fourth, and fifth parts of the entire string; they gradually decay in strength, according as the tone is sharper, because the number of concurring impulses diminishes as the number of aliquot divisions increases. We cannot be more particular on this subject, because the whole is so intimately connected with sympathetic tones; but the theory is clear and exact.

The solution of acute harmonious tones also depends in a great degree on the diagrams. Our author thinks it rather an undulation of the whole string, though confined by the finger at one point, than a vibration of the free part: in fact the peculiar sound produced, is entirely consistent with this theory, and consequently contributes to support it; but it is supported also by much sound reasoning, and some curious facts. The harmonic notes are remarkable for their softness and sweetness, because they are produced by a very slight friction, and because the friction is only applied to one of the several aliquot portions of the string. Our author thinks that all sounds, produced by this means, are harsher than those produced by the voice; and the harshness is in general proportional to the degree of friction employed.

There is a curious fact relative to the harp of *Æolus*, which our author explains from his doctrine of sympathetic tones. If one string be only stretched, and a brisk wind blows, a great variety of notes are heard, and frequently such as were not produced by any aliquot parts of the string: often too he heard a chord of two or three notes from the string. This seems to depend on a very slight circumstance. If the wind be slight, the string, when bent, will soon recover its original state, and produce the peculiar sound of the string alone; but if the wind be strong, it will preserve its bellied form, and the different parts of the string will then sound as if it was fixed at the middle point. Though the wind may prevent the vibration of the whole, yet it may not of its parts; for the times of vibrations in strings of different lengths, are directly as their lengths; and in strings of different tensions, directly as the square roots of their tensions: so that a force, which can keep the whole string in tension, cannot prevent the vibration of each half, unless it were increased so much as

to move the whole string, though its tension were four times greater. Our author's experiments, with the lyre, fully establish his principles.

The last subject is grave harmonic sounds, which arise from the continued combination of two sounds, on instruments capable of *holding* or continuing a given note. Our author proceeds to the particular examples, in which a new note is generated; and he explains it on the following principles. In two continued notes, if the extreme vibrations of each of the principals coincide, the remaining vibrations will not; and the different pulses of the grave and acute, which do not coincide, will strike the ear separately. To explain this more clearly would extend our article too far; but the whole appears to be founded on experiments, which we have not been able to repeat. We ought to add, that the very existence of these sounds has frequently been doubted.

We have been more diffuse on this work, because, in every step, our author displays great judgment, and extensive information; we have preferred an analysis to extracts, because by this means we could convey a more particular knowledge of the whole. We need not add, that it deserves the maturest examination, since it considerably enlarges the limits of science; and it is written with equal clearness, precision, and candour.

The History of the Rise and Progress of Geography. By the Rev. John Blair, LL.D. 8vo. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell.

SINCE the first publication of Dr. Blair's Chronology, it has been illustrated by maps; and as they are an additional part, this little tract was intended as an introduction to them, and is published in our author's great work. It now first appears separately. Dr. Blair justly observes, that little satisfaction, on this subject, is to be found in any one author who has professedly written on it; and, though he proposes to give the outline only, it is so satisfactory, as to leave little anxiety for the future additions. Hipparchus, who flourished about one hundred and thirty years before Christ, was the first who gave a permanency and certainty to geographical discussions, by laying their foundation on astronomical observations. His words are worth preserving, as they contain almost the first hint on this subject.

"It is impossible, says he, either for an illiterate person, or a man of learning, to acquire the necessary knowledge of geography without an attention to the heavens, and to the observations of eclipses. For whether Alexandria in Egypt is more northerly than Babylon, or more southerly, or to what distance

this amounts, cannot be determined without considering them by their climates. In like manner, what places lie towards the east, or towards the west; and whether more or less, no person can know accurately without comparing the eclipses of the sun and moon."

We here perceive the origin of terms so often employed, viz. latitude and longitude; but the hint was forgotten for many years, till the days of Ptolemy. Hipparchus too, first introduced maps, in a form which corresponded to the real appearances; for those before his time were little more than rude outlines, and topographical sketches of different countries. Dr. Blair goes back to enumerate these imperfect attempts, to the time of Eratosthenes, who was nearly the contemporary of Hipparchus, though a little prior to his period. We shall select our author's description of this famous map, which was for a time the oracle of geographers.

It is proper however to observe, that his map appears to have contained little more than the states of Greece, and the dominions of the successors of Alexander, digested from those surveys already mentioned. He had seen indeed, and has quoted, the voyages of Pytheas into the great Atlantic ocean, which gave him some faint idea of the western parts of Europe; but withal so imperfect, that they could not be realised into the outline of a chart. Strabo tells us, that he was extremely ignorant of Spain, Gaul, Germany, and Britain, as well as of the Geti and Bastarni; he was equally ignorant of Italy, the coasts of the Adriatic, of Pontus, and of all the countries towards the north. And he mentions in another passage, that Eratosthenes had made the distance from Epidamnus, or Dyrrachium on the Adriatic, to the bay of Thermæ on the Ægean sea, quite across Epirus, to be only 900 stadia, when it was really above 2000 stadia; and in another instance, he had enlarged the distance from Carthage to Alexandria to be 15,000 stadia, whereas it amounted to no more than 9000 stadia.

The wars and victories of the Romans were the means which gave a more flourishing appearance to geography; and their discoveries were incorporated into one body, in consequence of the survey directed to be made by Julius Cæsar, continued and completed under Augustus. After this period, when their acquaintance with the different provinces was matured by more frequent visits, Ptolemy composed his system. Its errors and imperfections are well known; and while it shews how little acquainted the ancients were, with even their own territories, compared to the preceding works of the same kind, it may be styled complete and accurate. At this moment, in an enlightened age, when commerce and war, those destructive opponents in every other respect, have contributed to enlarge our knowledge of different countries, much remains to be ascer-

ascertained. It is observed by Dr. Blair, that even the maps of Great Britain and Ireland are still imperfect and unsatisfactory. The situation of the Lizard is scarcely determined; and different opinions, from respectable geographers, are adduced to prove its uncertainty. Though we agree with the learned author, that geography still requires constant care, and its errors are numerous, yet, in this instance, policy has occasioned a variation rather than defective observations. This important point to the navigators of the British channel, has been designedly put farther to the west than it is really situated, to prevent a rash incautious seaman from pushing too far before he feels his way by the lead. Dr. Halley was first guilty of this pious fraud; and we suspect, that the same caution has induced others to magnify the error.

The remainder of this little volume is employed in the history of different mensurations, and questions connected with astronomical geography. The rotation of the earth's axis was early perceived, and we now mention it to introduce a fact of some curiosity.

Peter Petit, a mathematician of some eminence in France, endeavoured to revive this opinion in a Dissertation, published in 1660, from the apparent variations in the latitude of Paris, as taken by the ablest astronomers, some of whom had made it $48^{\circ} 39'$, others $48^{\circ} 45'$, sometimes $48^{\circ} 50'$, and at other times $48^{\circ} 55'$. All of which only confirms an observation made by an eminent French astronomer, that they had no good quadrant fit for taking an observation of the latitude, even in the whole kingdom of France, in the year 1664. For M. Auzot, in a letter which he addressed to Lewis XIVth, in this very year, made use of the following words: "Mais, sire, c'est un malheur, qu'il n'y a pas un instrument à Paris, ni, que je sçache, dans tout votre royaume, auquel je voulusse m'assurer pour prendre précisément la hauteur de pôle."

We cannot dismiss this work, without a warm encomium on its accuracy and perspicuity, as well as an earnest recommendation of it to those whose curiosity induces to enquire into those imperfect steps which have led to the present improved state of science.

*Transactions of the Society, instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, with the Premiums offered in the Year 1784. Vol. II. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Cadell. **

IF this volume does not appear very important, yet the views of the Society continue to be extensive, and their encouragement generous and munificent. It is at least no little ob-

* For an account of the first vol. see Crit. Rev. vol. lvii. p. 128.

ject to examine their intentions, in the premiums offered for future attempts. This part of their work might be more entertaining and interesting, if they shortly added the reasons which induced the offer of encouragement. Every one is not acquainted with the utility of the poplar, or the occidental plane tree.

The arrangement of this volume is somewhat different from that of the former one. All the premiums are added at the end, to expedite the publication; for they are not fixed till the second Wednesday in April; and if, as usual, they are annexed to the subjects to which they properly belong, the book would not be printed before the Society's summer vacation. Again, a general statement of the rewards, down to the year 1782, was inserted in the first volume: the names of those who received them from the year 1775 to 1783, are now added. Before the first period, the names are to be found in Mr. Doffie's work, of which this is to be considered as a continuation. The principal subjects of this volume are plantations, comparative examination of drill and broad-cast husbandry, the turnep-rooted cabbage, raising silk-worms, and the gun-barpoon.

The Society continue their attention to planting; and, under their auspices, our forests are not only likely to increase, but the trees best adapted to particular soils are selected with propriety. The ash, against which, though an useful and frequently beautiful tree, modern improvers have drawn their axe, shares their attention. Woods are supplied for the great consumption in the northern collieries; and future navies are now in embryo in the growing oak. We know no object more worthy their care, and there is none which they have more anxiously and unremittingly pursued.

Mr. Lowther, of Aikton, in a very intelligent comparative account, prefers the drilling method of husbandry, with the intervals horse-hoed. The profit of one acre, in this way, appears to be 3l. 17s. 6d. the profit of the same quantity, sown on broad-cast, 3l. 2s. 2d.

—The following additional observations, will abundantly evince the great superiority of the drill method.

First, a farmer with the same quantity of manure and lime may sow in drills, horse-hoeing the intervals, a parcel of ground just double to that which he can sow in broad cast; then the yearly quantity of wheat growing on two acres, drilled and horse-hoed, will be to that sown in broad-cast on one acre, as twelve to eight, and the profit (including the yearly rent of these two acres) computed at eight shillings per acre, will be to the profit of the broad-cast acre, as 4l. 12s. 4d. to 3l. 2s. 6d.

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‘The yearly crop of turneps growing on two acres drilled, &c. will be to that growing on one broad-cast acre as ten to six: the yearly profit of the said two acres, including rent, as before, will be 16s. 8d. whereas in the broad-cast way, there will that year be a loss of 5s. 6d.

‘Secondly, in the broad-cast way, there is a sort of necessity for fallowing the year after the turneps. If barley were sown that year, and there were no fallow, it would hurt the wheat crop in the third year, and by consequence the ground also.

‘Thirdly, the grains of wheat and barley will both be larger and fairer in the drilling, &c. than in the broad-cast method.

‘Fourthly, it adds greatly to the superiority of the drilling method, that the drilled acre, without any additional manure, will produce two good crops more, viz. one of barley, and the other of wheat, whereas the broad-cast acre, after the wheat crop, will, without further help, produce no more to any advantage.’

In a subsequent paper, the same gentleman endeavours to support the French method of sowing wheat in clusters, and has contrived a drill plough to expedite it.—The following letters, in the department of agriculture, are miscellaneous. The object of one is, to recommend the use of the salts which run from dunghills, as a ley, in which the seed-corn may be advantageously steeped, and as a manure for the ground: of the other, to recommend the most useful method of improving waste land. This seems a valuable article, as it is the result of experiment; but is incapable of abridgment. The Scotch cabbage continues to be an object of considerable importance, as winter fodder. Sir William Fordyce’s letter relates to the cultivation of rhubarb: he proposes that the roots should be taken up at six or seven years old. We are convinced, that if English rhubarb yields to the foreign, it is in the quality of astringency, which is the effect only of age. We have made frequent trials with it, and have much reason to believe that it should exceed twice that period. The root should be cleared of the rind, and a perforation in the middle, especially in the large pieces, is of the greatest importance.

In the year 1776, the gold medal was voted to Mr. James Black, for introducing the use of the Roman ox-yoke, and his account of it is now published. It would be rash to decide against experience, without having had any on the subject; but we can easily perceive that his reasoning is inconsistent with the principles of mechanics, and with the structure of the animal. This yoke is fixed to the head, behind the horns, and confined to them by proper harnesses. We allow that his ground of preferring

ferring oxen for husbandry, is just and proper. The continuation of the reports respecting the turnep-rooted cabbage, are flattering; and we think that it would be very advantageous in a barren soil: there is always danger in feeding sheep too full. If full diet be joined with moisture, the rot is a frequent consequence; and the fleece, as well as the flavour, are always impaired.

The oil from the seeds of the sun-flower, is found to be very trifling in quantity; and Mr. Simpson's method of making slow match from old rope, by boiling it in a strong decoction of hay, nettles, cabbage, &c. did not, on trial, promise to afford a cheaper or better match than that commonly used. We shall make no apology for inserting the following explanation.

* A copper plate, with an etched or engraved outline, dotted next the lights, and filled in with Mezzotinto ground, is printed in colours, after nature, or from a picture, by the following process.

* The plate being warmed in the usual manner, the colours are applied by means of stump camel hair pencils, to the different parts, as the subject suggests; it is then wiped with a coarse gauze canvas, any other being improper; after this it is wiped clean with the hand as in common practice; and being again warmed, is passed through the press.

* The colours are mixed with burnt linseed oil, and those generally used by painters are proper.

The great improvement of Mrs. Williams, in her management of silk-worms, is the having found other food for them besides mulberry leaves. This is the tender leaves of the bramble, stripped of the thorns; young elm leaves, or the leaves and flowers of cowslips. The mulberry however is still the favourite food; and Mrs. Williams seems to have made no experiments on the silk of those worms, fed wholly on either of these substitutes. In these cases, or rather when the worms have been fed with lettuce and holyoak leaves, the silk is said to be deficient both in fineness and firmness, and the worms are slower in their growth. The cocoons may be wholly reeled off, by using very hot water. We believe the lady's account of the styptic effects of the woof, because we know that common cotton will answer the same purpose. But we suspect also, that it might be an useful substitute for the Indian moxa, if ever, among the various medicinal fashions, burning should be again employed. Mr. Barrington's historical account of the attempts to introduce the silk manufacture may be curious; but, on the whole, the subject seems scarcely to deserve attention. There are various obstacles to the undertaking;

taking; and the time and pains may be more profitably employed on the objects within our reach. We have suffered our woollen manufacture to decay, by our inattention to the breed of sheep. If Mr. Anderson's account is just, and there is no reason to suspect it, with a very little care we might rival the manufactures of Thibet, though we can never probably approach to those of Nanquin.

Under the head of Mechanics, there are many testimonies in favour of the gun-harpoon for striking whales; that is, an harpoon driven from a common swivel, by the force of gun-powder. It seems to possess many advantages over the common ones, and deserves attention to render it more perfect. We perceive that the Society have continued their premiums on this subject. The other papers are on the means of securing hay-ricks from rain during making, which the farmer will seldom follow, as the expence is certain, the utility transitory and precarious; and on the culture of indigo in the island of Tobago; a subject no longer interesting to us. Next follow the transactions of the Society for the year 1783; but these present us with nothing remarkable.

The premiums which conclude the volume, add considerably to the credit of the Society, as the objects are useful and interesting. They now seem to have confined their views to the culture of kelp, in order to rival the Spanish merchant in barilla. The expence of making it from salt will always be an obstacle during peace, as it can be imported cheaper than it is made. It might perhaps be an object to save the first evaporation, by changing, if possible, strong brine into an alkaline lixivium, since it must be again dissolved; and this can only be carried on at the salt works. The attempt is, we believe, by no means impracticable, and deserves attention. We shall only extract one proposal, since the object is so important, and as it is the means of rendering an improving science at once applicable to very useful purposes.

‘Ascertaining the component parts of arable land. To the person who shall produce to the Society the most satisfactory set of experiments, to ascertain the due proportion of the several component parts of arable land, in one or more counties in Great Britain, by an accurate analysis of it; and who having made a like analysis of some poor land, shall, by comparing the component parts of each, and thereby ascertaining the deficiencies in the poor soil, improve a quantity of it, not less than two acres, by the addition of such parts as the former experiments shall have discovered to be wanting therein, and therefore probably the cause of its sterility; the gold medal.

It

It is required that the manureings, ploughings, and crops of the improved land, be the same after the improvement as before, and that a minute account of the produce in each state; of the weather, and of the various influencing circumstances, together with the method made use of in analysing the soils, to be produced, with proper certificates, and the chemical results of the analyses, which are to remain the property of the Society, on or before the last Tuesday in November, 1788.

It is expected that a quantity, not less than six pounds, of the rich, of the poor, and of the improved soils, be produced with the certificates.

N. B. Among the methods or processes made use of by chemists, and called dry, or moist, the latter only appears adapted to the ascertaining the respective proportions of the component parts of arable earth.—Dr. Shaw, in his Chemical Lectures.—Dr. Home, in his Principles of Agriculture.—Dr. George Fordyce, in his Elements of Agriculture;—and Sir Torbern Bergman, in his Dissertation sur les Terres geponiques, have treated of these subjects.

We have only to add that this volume is handsomely printed, and adorned with a very beautiful engraving of lord Folkestone, first president of the Society.

Elements of Mineralogy. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Elmsly.

Mineralogy has been little attended to in England; and though both in speculative and practical knowledge, we frequently excel our neighbours, we yield to them in this first branch, by which every other may be considerably improved. It is indeed surprising to perceive men of rank and genius, who have pursued nature in her various haunts, so generally ignorant of those substances which are most constantly offered to their view; and receive with so much astonishment and incredulity, the discoveries which have already been made. To us, indeed, mineralogy is almost a new science; among the earths, we have not long known the fusible spar, or the ponderous earth; we have scarcely understood the nature of asbestos, and the plumbago. The arsenical, the molybdenous, and the tungstein acid, have yet been little heard of; manganese we have long used with very little acquaintance with its nature, and the siderite and saturnite are scarcely known by their names. These are a very few of the novelties which we have yet to learn, and of which we may receive ample information from the work before us. Others, a more exact attention and repeated experience will certainly discover.

In

In this volume, the author has collected various analyses of mineral bodies, from the best and most respectable chemists: different ones are added from his own experiments; but to many English philosophers, the greater number of both kinds are still new. We have already explained the difference between mineralogists, in their mode of classification, and endeavoured to support that which is now followed. External appearance, and obvious properties, must however still have some share, not only in ascertaining varieties, but in establishing genera. It is one of the rules in the *sciagraphia*, that in classing minerals, the nature is often to be consulted, rather than the quantity of the ingredients. If, for instance, any one of these is so powerful as to give its peculiar characteristic to the whole, though it be not in the greatest quantity, the body is still referred to that genus. Thus asbestos is arranged with the earths of magnesia, though it contain more than three times as much flinty earth. Soap rock and steatites have a still greater proportion of flint, and yet belong to the same class with asbestos.—Again, the purest dry clay contains a much larger quantity of flint than of argil: the killas, toadstone, zeolite, and pitch-stone, which are still styled argillaceous, have also the largest proportion of flint. But these are no longer objections, when they are understood and admitted: in support of this method, we need only refer to the considerable advances made in this science, within a few years, by the united efforts of Messrs. Cronstedt, Gahn, Scheele, and Bergman. In a very sensible introduction, our author considers the pretensions of different systems, particularly that of Mr. Werner, who arranges fossils from all their different external properties, and that of Romé de l'Isle, who has endeavoured to arrange them from the figure of their crystals. Mr. Werner's work is little known in England; but de l'Isle's is captivating in its appearance, and extended so far as to become a formidable antagonist. We shall insert therefore a few observations on this subject from Mr. Kirwan.

Shape, the varieties of this even when regular and determinate, are endless, as may be seen in Mr. De Lisle's Treatise, and must be so, as they depend on various external accidents, thus he finds 32 varieties in the shape of calcareous spar, 14 in that of gypsum, 9 in that of fluor, 16 in that of quartz, besides its monstrous forms, equally regular as the rest, 19 in that of felt spar, &c. and not only the same specific substance is susceptible of various shapes, but various substances specifically different, assume the same shape. Thus the native calx of arsenic, blende, cinnabar, and grey copper ore, often appear in a tetrahedral form; common salt, fluor, zeolyte, galena, in a cubic, &c. if the nature of any substance could be de-

ter-

terminated by its form, it would undoubtedly be that of salts, yet there is scarce any of these which in different circumstances, may not assume a different figure; Mr. Pott assures us, that microcosmic salt assumes the figure of almost all other salts, nitre, vitriol, salammoniac, allum, glauber's salts, &c. 4 Pott, 49. According to Maquer, if sublimate corrosive be crystalized, by cooling it forms needles, but if by mere evaporation, cubes or lozenges. Mem. Par. 1755, p. 540. Digestive salt will form cubes if it be exactly neutral, but if the alkali predominates quadrangular prisms, common salt is generally looked upon as the most constant in its figure, yet Mr. Cadet has found it crystalized in needles, 9 Mem. Scav. Etrang. p. 555. and Gerhard, 4 Berlin, Schrift. 292. Very many, if not most of the mistakes to be found in chymical writers on salts, arose from their having denominated them from their figure.

It is not easy to give a comprehensive account of a work which consists of so many detached pieces, and where each of these is, in general, a dry detail of the weight of component parts. For the greater part of these we must refer to the work itself, which is extremely valuable and highly useful. Our chief business must be to describe the author's general conduct, and to select some particular passages. The earths and stones described by our author are five; calcareous, ponderous (called by Mr. Kirwan barytes or barytic genus), magnesia (muriatic genus), clay, and flint. The species are compounds of each of these with the others, or with a saline, inflammable, or metallic principle. Species, to deserve the title, must contain a notable proportion of the additional body, that is any proportion which produces peculiar effects, or is the foundation of some particular use. There are other species called *super-compounds*, or aggregates of visibly different simple species. In the saline substances, the inflammables and the metals, the genera and species, are more easily understood. We have already observed, that the nature of manganese is more particularly explained; and that to the class of metals are added, the siderite, saturnite, and molybdæna. The siderite is the frigidum fragile of the later chemists, the cold short iron which frequently contaminates a large quantity of ore: our author seems to think it a different metal; but its nature has not yet been discovered. It is suspected by some German chemists to be a combination of iron with the phosphoric acid. The saturnite differs only from lead in being much more fusible, very brittle, easily scorified, or volatilized, and refusing to mix with lead in fusion. It is found in the lead mines of Poullaoven, in Brittany, and probably may also contain phosphoric acid. An ore of lead, with this acid, has been discovered by Mr. Gahn; and it was considered as the only instance

stance in which it mineralized any metal; but the appearance of that specimen was influenced by the addition of iron.

To the class of earths are added two appendices, together with a chapter on animal and vegetable earths. The first appendix is on the diamond and plumbago. The diamond is inserted by Bergman, among the inflammables; but our author objects to this arrangement, because its inflammability is so obscure. Certainly no useful purpose is answered by styling it inflammable, yet it is adapted to no other class, for it leaves no residuum. The plumbago resembles the molybdæna, and is undoubtedly metallic, though the usual fluxes have not hitherto been found capable of reducing it. One hundred grains of this substance contain thirty-three grains of aerial acid, and sixty-seven of phlogiston. It is probably necessary to add a larger quantity of the acid in which the usual fluxes are deficient. The acid of molybdæna is of a very peculiar nature; like the phosphoric, it appears in the form of a whitish calx: we shall transcribe its properties, from Mr. Kirwan's work.

* This acid is soluble in 570 times its weight of water in the temperature of 60; the solution reddens that of litmus, precipitates sulphur from the solution of liver of sulphur, &c. the specific gravity of the dry acid is 3,460. 3 Bergm. 127.

* This acid is precipitable from its solution in water by the Prussian alkali, and also by tincture of galls the precipitate is reddish brown.

* If this acid be distilled with three times its weight of sulphur, it re-produces molybdæna.

* The solution of this acid in water unites to fixed alkalis, and forms crystallizable salts; so it does with calcareous earth, magnesia, and argill: these last combinations are difficultly soluble; it acts also on the base metals, and with them assumes a bluish colour.

* This solution precipitates silver, mercury, or lead from the nitrous acid, and lead from the marine, but not mercury.

* It also precipitates barytes from the nitrous and marine acids, but no other earth. Molybdenous baroselenite is soluble in cold water.

* This acid is itself soluble in the vitriolic acid with the assistance of heat, and the solution is blue when cold, though colourless while hot; it is also soluble in the marine acid, but not in the nitrous.

* Molybdenous tartar and ammoniac precipitate all metals from their solutions by a double affinity. Gold, sublimate corrosive, zinc and manganese, are precipitated white; iron or tin from the marine acid brown; cobalt red; copper blue.

* Alum and calcareous earth white. Scheele Mem. Stock, 1778.

'This acid has been lately reduced by Mr. Hielm, but the properties of the regulus thus obtained are not yet published.'

The second appendix is on the general examination and analysis of earths and stones. The utility of this article must be obvious. It is accurate and comprehensive; but is incapable of abridgment. We shall conclude our extracts of the nature of particular substances, by the description of the tungstein acid.

'Its solution in water reddens that of litmus; with alkalis it forms crystalizable salts; with barytes calcareous earth, and magnesia insoluble compounds.

'This solution is precipitated white by the Prussian alkali, and the precipitate is soluble in water.

'It precipitates the solutions of vitriols of iron, zinc, copper, and the nitrous solutions of silver, mercury and lead, and that of lead in marine acid; all these precipitates are white: the solution of tin in marine acid is precipitated blue, but the solutions of gold and sublimate corrosive are not altered by it.

'The solutions of chalk or alum are not altered by it, but that of barytes in the acetic acid is precipitated, and the precipitate is insoluble.'

Vegetable and animal earths have been hitherto considered as of peculiar natures; but the former consists of almost every kind of earth, the basis of the last is calcareous; sometimes it contains a little selenite, and, in human bones, is combined with the phosphoric acid. Vegetable earth also contains a great variety of neutral salts: this was first attended to by Mr. Margraaf, and has since been pursued by different chemists. It contains also manganese, which has been hitherto little known. The following extract is curious and useful.

'Manganese seems to be contained in the ashes of most vegetables, and to it the blue or greenish colour of calcined vegetable alkali is owing. These colours are generally attributed to the phlogiston of the alkali; but if so, they should not be found in fixed nitre, as the nitrous acid should carry off, during its decomposition, all the phlogiston; yet this alkali is always greenish, so that the colour seems to arise from the ashes of the charcoal with which the nitre was decomposed. If 3 parts of the alkali of tartar, 1 of sifted ashes, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of nitre be melted together, they form a dark green mass, which being dissolved in water affords a beautiful green solution, and this being filtered, on the addition of a few drops of oil of vitriol, becomes red, and after a few days a brown powder is deposited, which has the properties of manganese.' Scheele 56 Mem. Stock.

1774. p. 189. The ashes of serpyllum contain very little of it, those of trees contain most. Ibid. 180.

There is still an useful part of the subject which our author has very slightly mentioned, viz. the formation and decomposition.

position of stones. The first is almost entirely omitted, except so far as the forms and appearances have been altered by fusion. He seems to have been persuaded, by the observations of Sir William Hamilton and others, that stones may be decomposed by exposure to the air; but the decomposition of the harder granites is so slow, that we now know an engraving on a stone of this kind, which has been entirely exposed for above a century, where the sharpness of the letters seems to be in no respect diminished. This stone is so hard, that the workmen themselves prepare the tools for their work, and a pick, hardened with the utmost care by a common smith, seems to yield as easily as lead. All their own art is not sufficient to preserve them for many hours, without repair. The decomposition of lava is very different. The hornstone marl, and the argillaceous schisti, are, according to Mr. Saussure, the most common ingredients of lava; to these we may add the killas rock, which we have sometimes observed to be the foundation on which a volcano has rested. It will be obvious then, that these may be decomposed with greater facility, according as the fusion has been less or more complete, or in other words, according to the nature of the ingredients. But there is another mode of decomposition which has not been hitherto considered. The less compact lavas, which are cellular, and always near the surface, are often filled with calcareous earth, in consequence of water passing through them. This earth is frequently very nearly pure, by having only a small proportion of fixed air; so that when exposed, it swells and destroys the texture of the piece, which contained it. We have seen lava, which has not been dug above seven years, in this way, crumbled into useful earth. We leave our readers therefore to judge how precarious every calculation, respecting the age of the world, must be from the thickness of mould over masses of lava.

To the end of the metals are added, 'reflexions on the nature of cobalt, nichel, and manganese.' These have been asserted to be modifications of iron, or combinations of different kinds; and it is the object of this chapter to combat these opinions, which Mr. Kirwan seems to have executed successfully.

The geological observations are sometimes new, and always curious or entertaining. We shall select the observations on the primæval mountains.

Among the primæval, those that consist of granite hold the first place. The highest mountains, and most extensive ridges in every part of the globe, are granitical. Thus the Alps and Pyrenees are the loftiest in Europe, and particularly such of

them as consist of granite, the Altaishan, Uralian and Caucasus in Asia, and the Andes in America. From them the greatest rivers derive their origin. The highest of them never contain metallic ores, but some of the lower contain veins of copper or tin, as those of Saxony, Silesia, and Cornwall. The granitic stones next the ore always abound in mica; petrefactions are never found in them.

Many of the granite mountains of Asia and America form large plat-forms at about half their height, from which several lofty spires arise. No such plat-forms have been observed in the Alps or Pyrenees.

That the formation of these mountains preceded that of vegetables and animals, is justly inferred from their containing no organic remains, either in the form of petrification or impression, from their bulk, extension and connection, which seem too considerable to be ascribed to subsequent causes, and from their use and necessity for the production of rivers, without which it is hard to suppose that the world had existed at any period since the creation of animals. Most naturalists are at present agreed that granites were formed by crystallization. This operation probably took place after the formation of the atmosphere, (which in the history of the creation is called the firmament) and the gradual excavation of the bed of the ocean; soon after which, it is said, that by command of God (that is, by virtue of the laws of nature which he established) the dry land appeared; for by means of the evaporation of part of the waters into the atmosphere, and the gradual retreat of the remainder, the various species of earths before dissolved or dissolved through this mighty mass, were disposed to coalesce, and among these the siliceous must have been the first, as they are the least soluble: but as they have an affinity to other earths with which they were mixed, some of these must also have united with them in various proportions, and thus have formed in distinct masses the feld spar, shoerl and mica, which compose the granite. Calcareous earth enters very sparingly into the composition of this stone; but as it is found in shoerl, which is frequently a component part of granite, it follows that it must be one of the primitive earths, and not entirely derived from marine exuviae, as many imagine. Quartz can never be supposed to be a product of fire, for in a very low heat it bursts, cracks, and loses its transparency, and in the highest we can produce, it is infusible; so that in every essential point it is totally unlike to glass to which some have compared it. As granite contains earths of every genus, we may conclude that all the simple earths are coeval with the creation. This observation does not preclude further researches into their composition; for though water undoubtedly dates from the creation, yet some late experiments shew it to be a compound: their simplicity may be only relative to the present state of our knowledge.

After

After mentioning their height, our author enquires into the structure of mountains, which are divided into entire, stratified, and confused. Each of these are described with accuracy, and he next treats of volcanos.

These mountains are of all heights, some so low as 450 feet, as that in Tanna, but they generally form lofty spires, internally shaped like an inverted cone placed on a broader basis. This cone is called the crater of the volcano, as through it the lava generally passes, though sometimes it bursts from the sides, and even from the bottom of the mountain; sometimes the crater falls in and is effaced; sometimes in extinguished volcanoes it is filled with water, and forms those lakes that are observed on the summit of some mountains.

Both the crater and basis of many volcanic mountains consist of lava either entire or decomposed, nearly as low as the level of the sea, but they finally rest either upon granite, as the volcanos of Peru, or on shists, as the extinguished volcanos of Hesse and Bohemia, or on lime-stone, as those of Silesia, the Vicentine Alps, and Vesuvius. The decomposed and undecomposed lavas form irregular strata that are never parallel to each other. No ore is found in these mountains, except iron, of which lava contains from 20 to 25 per cent. and some detached fragments of copper, antimonial and arsenical ores.

If we consider the immense quantity of matter thrown up at different periods by volcanic mountains, without lessening their apparent bulk, we must conclude the seat of these fires to be several miles, perhaps hundreds of miles, below the level of the sea; and as iron makes from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ of all these ejections, we may infer that the interior parts of the earth consist chiefly of this metal, its ores, or stones that contain it, whose greater or lesser dephlogistication in different parts may be the cause of the variation of magnetic direction.

It is perhaps this error, respecting their height, which has occasioned them to be so frequently overlooked. They are sometimes within two hundred feet of the level of the sea, and we have seen them within one hundred and thirty. The crater is indeed, in cultivated countries, commonly obliterated; but the hill may be distinguished by various marks. They are seldom combined in a ridge, but are often single, almost equally abrupt on every side. Their tops are commonly covered with a cellular stone, and, when they are dug into on any side, the specific gravity of the stone increases according to the depth: there are no regular veins, but various cracks in all directions, sometimes empty, but more frequently filled with calcareous matter; sometimes with a black powder which, when examined, appears to be a mass of crystals, probably of a ferrugineous salt. These are only a few marks: we cannot enlarge on the subject, we wish only to direct the atten-

sion of naturalists to it. We shall only extract our author's sentiments on basalt, since we mentioned it as a volcanic production, in our review of captain Cook's last voyage.

Basalt, and in many instances sheet, seem to me to owe their origin both to fire and water: they seem to have been at first a lava, but this lava, while in a liquid state being immersed in water, was so diffused or dissolved in it with the assistance of heat, as to crystallize when cold, or coalesce into regular forms. That basalt is not the result of mere fusion appears by a comparison of its form with its texture; its form, it being crystallized, should be the effect of a thin fusion, but in that case its texture should be glassy; whereas it is merely earthy and devoid of cavities. Hence we may understand how it comes to pass that lava perfectly vitrified, and even water, are sometimes found inclosed in basalt. *Mon. Mineral* 511. *Von Trost*, 285.

The whole work is concluded with some useful tables, which chiefly show the proportion of the ingredients of different natural bodies. These tables, in some degree, supply the want of an index, which will be felt severely by the learner; and we would earnestly recommend this addition in a future impression. In the mean time it would be no useless employment for each reader to form one for himself; for it will fix the contents of this very miscellaneous and important publication very strongly on his mind. We cannot conclude this article without our warmest acknowledgments to Mr. Kirwan for this laborious and accurate work. It contains such various and extensive information, that our article, though it had been extended beyond the usual bounds, would have been still imperfect. We may perhaps be allowed to suggest, another very necessary addition, that is, a more frequent reference to Crenstedt.

The History of Greece. By William Mitford, Esq. Vol. I. 4to. 16s. in Boards. Murray.

Notwithstanding the high veneration in which the writings and achievements of ancient Greece are universally held, it may be affirmed with truth that no history of that country has ever yet appeared, proportioned to the splendor of the subject, either in merit or extent. In respect to the latter of these qualifications, the author now before us evidently excels all his predecessors; and we have not the smallest doubt but those who peruse the work with attention, will acknowledge that he is likewise no less conspicuous for the former. An author who commences the Grecian history from the remotest epoch of written information, must find it no

easy talk to ascertain truth amidst evidence often either contradictory or suspicious; but the difficulty greatly increases when he attempts to carry his researches into the yet more doubtful periods of antiquity, the accounts of which, lying beyond the era that marks the earliest use of letters, rest on no other foundation than the testimony of oral tradition. This indeed is such authority as is generally, and with justice, rejected in historical narrative. But if ever traditionary fame may be admitted as supplemental to authenticated detail, it is in the History of ancient Greece; for we agree in opinion with the writer before us, that the earliest traditions of that country interest in so many ways, and through so many means, that the historian would scarcely be forgiven the omission of all consideration of the times to which they relate.

Mr. Mitford has very properly introduced the narrative with a short geographical account of Greece, which he concludes with the following remarks.

It appears thus that Greece is a rough country, yet enjoying many, and even peculiar advantages. The climate is most favorable: the summer-heat brings the finest fruits to the greatest perfection: the winter-cold suffices to brace and harden the bodies of the inhabitants: the sea is scarcely any where too distant to keep both within the desirable temperature. The long winding range of coast abounds with excellent harbours. The vales afford rich pasture; the middle grounds corn, wine, and oil; and of the mountains, some to a great extent are covered with variety of timber; some formed of the finest marble; some contain various valuable metals. And this variety in the surface, which gives occasion to equal variety of produce, affords at the same time variety of climate in every season of the year.

The first emigrants who took possession of this country, if they retained the least relic of civility, could want no inducement to settle themselves in the rich and beautiful vales with which it abounds. Even the most savage, for the habitation of a family, would prefer a fruitful plain; especially where mountain forests were every where at hand for the resource of hunting, when the vale ill-cultivated or uncultivated, might no longer afford subsistence. But perhaps the beasts of prey, with which the old world has always been infested so greatly more than the new, have contributed not a little to the quicker progress of society and civilization. The first inhabitants of Greece particularly could hardly subsist without mutual support against the ravenous beasts of the woods and mountains, which every where surrounded them. Even in the age of Hesiod and Homer, the brute creation was not so far subdued, in the countries occupied by the Greeks, but that security against wild beasts was an important purpose of human society.

society. Some degree of political association would therefore from the first be necessary: the inhabitants of every vale would constitute a state more or less regular.

But the spirit of emigration seems not soon to have subsided among mankind. Many whole hords, either dissatisfied with their settlements, or, like the Arabs and Tartars to this day, without a desire to settle, quitted the spots they had first chosen, and wandered still in quest of others: and it appears to have been a universal practice, when an eligible situation was overstocked with inhabitants, which might soon happen where not only manufactures and commerce, but even agriculture, was unknown or unpractised, to send out colonies, often to parts very distant. Thus we find that in very early times many different people, of whom the Greek writers in the most enlightened ages could give no satisfactory account, over-ran Greece: sometimes mixing with the ancient inhabitants, sometimes expelling them. The rich vales, which without cultivation would give large support for cattle, were the coveted territories; and these were continually changing their possessors. Of the expelled, some wandered in quest of unoccupied vales; or, in their turn, drove out the inhabitants of the first they came to, if they found them weaker than themselves. Others took to the neighbouring mountains; and thence, harassing the intruders, not unfrequently recovered in time their old settlement in the vale.

The inhabitants of ancient Greece appear to have been particularly exposed to mutual hostilities, not only from the frequent succession of various tribes, by which the country was occupied, but from the vicinity of the islands in the Archipelago, whence they were almost perpetually annoyed with piratical and predatory expeditions. The origin and progress of these remote transactions, our author has briefly delineated in a manner conformable to the different interests of the people, and to the general analogy of other nations in the state of uncivilization. After endeavouring to exhibit such an idea of the country as can be obtained from the dawn of tradition, he proceeds to relate the affairs of the southern and northern provinces, respectively, from the earliest accounts to the Trojan war; and in the second chapter he treats of the early state of Asia Minor, and of the Trojan war.

The licentious manners of the Eastern nations, at the breaking out of the Trojan war, are faithfully described by our author in the following extract.

A frequent communication, sometimes friendly, but oftener hostile, was maintained between the eastern and western coasts of the Aegean sea: each was an object of piracy more than of commerce to the inhabitants of the opposite country. Cattle and slaves constituting the principal riches of the times, men, women,

women, and children, together with swine, sheep, goats, oxen, and horses, were principal objects of plunder. But scarcely was any crime more common than rapes; and it seems to have been a kind of fashion, in consequence of which leaders of piratical expeditions gratified their vanity in the highest degree, when they could carry off a lady of superior rank. How usual these outrages were among the Greeks, we may gather from the oath said to have been exacted by Tyndareus, king of Sparta, father of the celebrated Helen, from all the chieftains who came to ask his daughter in marriage: that in case of her being stolen, they would assist in recovering her with all their power. This tradition, with many other stories of Grecian rapes, on whatsoever founded, indicates with certainty the opinion of the later Greeks, among whom they were popular, concerning the manners of their ancestors. But it does not follow that the Greeks were more vicious than other people equally unhabituated to constant, vigorous, and well-regulated exertions of law and government. Equal licentiousness, but a few centuries ago, prevailed throughout western Europe. Hence those gloomy habitations of the ancient nobility which now excite the wonder of the traveller, particularly in the southern parts; where, in the midst of the finest countries, he often finds them in situations so singularly inconvenient and uncomfortable, except for what was then the one great object, security, that now the houseless peasant will scarcely go to them for shelter. From the licentiousness were derived the manners, and even the virtues of the times. Hence knight-errantry and its whimsical consequences.

The expedition of Paris, son of Priam king of Troy, into Greece, appears to have been a maroding scheme, such as was then usual. We are told, indeed, that he was received very hospitably, and entertained very kindly by Menelaus, king of Sparta. But this also was consonant to the spirit of the times; for hospitality has always been the virtue of barbarous ages: it is at this day no less characteristic of the wild Arabs than their spirit of robbery; and we know that in the Scottish highlands, robbery and hospitality equally flourished together till very lately. Hospitality, indeed, will be generally found to have flourished, in different ages and countries, very nearly in proportion to the necessity for it; that is, in proportion to the deficiency of jurisprudence, and the weakness of government. Paris concluded his visit at Sparta with carrying off Helen, wife of Menelaus, together with a considerable treasure; and whether this was effected by fraud, or, as some have supposed, by open violence, it is probable enough that, as Herodotus relates, it was first concerted, and afterward supported, in revenge for some similar injury done by the Greeks to the Trojans.

The history of the early ages of Greece, depending so much upon the accounts delivered by Homer, Mr. Mitford justly

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considers it as a matter of importance to establish the poet's authority, which, he observes, was less questioned among the ancients than in modern times. Among the principal circumstances mentioned in support of the credibility of Homer, it is remarked that in the age of the great bard poets were the only historians. Our author admits it does not thence follow that poets would always scrupulously adhere to truth; but it necessarily follows, that veracity, in historical narration, would constitute a large share of a poet's merit in the public opinion; a circumstance which the common use of written records and prose histories instantly and totally altered. Our author farther observes, that the probability, and the very remarkable consistency of Homer's historical anecdotes, variously dispersed as they are among his poetical details and embellishments, form a second and powerful testimony. In confirmation of the credit due to the historical authority of Homer, no small argument arises from the regard paid to it by the most judicious prose-writers of antiquity, and among the earlier, particularly by Thucydides. The accuracy of Homer's geographical descriptions, the only point that could admit of positive proof, must likewise be acknowledged to afford strong presumptive evidence in favour of his authority as a historian.

In the third chapter our author treats of the religion, government, jurisprudence, science, arts, commerce, and manners, of the early Greeks. In regard to the administration of justice, it is proper that we lay before our readers a short extract, where Mr. Mitford has criticised the interpretation of a passage in the *Iliad*, as translated by Mr. Pope.

While laws were yet unwritten they could be but few and simple; and judicial proceedings founded upon them little directed by any just or settled principles for the investigation of right and wrong. "The people were assembled in the market-place, when a dispute arose between two men concerning the payment of a fine for manslaughter. One of them, addressing himself to the bystanders, asserted that he had paid the whole; the other insisted that he had received nothing: both were earnest to bring the dispute to a judicial determination. The people grew noisy in favour some of the one, some of the other: but the heralds interfering enforced silence; and the elders, approaching, with scepters of heralds in their hands, seated themselves on the polished marble benches in the sacred circle. Before them the litigants, earnestly stepping forward, pleaded by turns; while two talents of gold lay in the midst, to be awarded to him who should support his cause by the clearest testimony, and the fairest arguments." Such is the description which Homer gives of a court of justice, and a lawsuit. The defendant first endeavoured to engage in his favour the people

people assembled occasionally about their ordinary business. The plausibility of his story, and probably some personal interest besides, for the amount of the fine proves the litigants to have been men of some consequence, procured him immediately a partner; but not such as to prevent his opponent also from finding strong support. The voices of the people therefore not being likely to determine the business, it was agreed to refer it to the council of elders, who assembled instantly, and decided summarily. It is observable that in this business no mention is made of a king; and again in another passage of Homer, where the vengeance of Jupiter is denounced against those who give unjust judgments, it is not the tribunal of kings that is spoken of, but the assembly of the people.

Λαοὶ δ' ἀμφοτέροισιν ἐπὶ πύον, ἀμφὶς ἀράγοι
κῆρυκες δ' ἄρα λαὸν ἐρήτυον· οἱ δὲ γέροντες
ἔιατ' ἐπὶ ἑξοῖσι λίθοις, ἱερῶν ἐνὶ κύκλῳ
Σκηπτρά δὲ κηρύκων ἐν χερσὶ ἔχον περσέωνων.
τοῖσιν ἔπειτ' ἵσασον, ἀμοιβῆς δ' ἐδίκασον.
Κεῖτο δ' ἄρ' ἐν μέσσοισι δύο χρυσοῖο τάλαντα,
τῷ δομεν, ὃς μὲν τοῖσι δίκην ἰδυντάτα εἶπεν.

We shall next subjoin Mr. Pope's translation and note.

There, in the Forum, swarm a num'rous train,
The subject of debate, a townsman slain:
One pleads the fine discharg'd, which one deny'd,
And bade the publick and the laws decide:
The witness is produc'd on either hand;
For this, or that, the partial people stand:
Th' appointed heralds still the noisy bands,
And form a ring, with sceptres in their hands;
On seats of stone, within the sacred place,
The rev'rend elders nodded o'er the case;
Alternate, each th' attesting sceptre took,
And rising solemn, each his sentence spoke.
Two golden talents lay amidst, in sight,
The prize of him who best adjudg'd the right.

Mr. Mitford's prose-translation is accompanied with the subsequent note.

* Eustathius informs us, that it was anciently the custom to have a reward given to that judge who pronounced the best sentence. M. Dacier opposes this authority, and will have it, that the reward was given to the person who upon the decision of the suit appeared to have the justest cause. The difference between these two customs, in the reason of the thing, is very great: for the one must have been an encouragement to justice, the other a provocation to dissension. It were to be wanting in a due reverence to the wisdom of the ancients, and of Homer in particular, not to chuse the former sense; and I have the honour to be confirmed in this opinion, by the ablest judge, as well as the best practiser of equity, my lord Harcourt, at whose seat I translated this book.

In

In revising this translation some years after it was first made, I found I had unawares differed from the scholiast and from all the most received versions. But I learnt from Pope's note upon the passage, that the common interpretation, which he has followed, is not undisputed; and his reason given for preferring it I scarcely quite comprehend. A public reward proposed either for the cunningest pleader, or the cunningest judge, on the decision of every cause, seems nearly an equal absurdity; nor does it appear to me that, consistently with common sense, the two talents of gold can be considered otherwise than as the amount of the fine itself, the very object in litigation. The words of the original perfectly bear that sense. My version of the preceding line

Τῶν δὲ κριτῶν, ἀποβνδὶς δὲ δίκης, ἡ δὲ δίκης, ἡ δὲ δίκης,

I submit with more doubt to the learned in the language. The spirit of the passage makes me wish that it could be supported, though I cannot undertake myself intirely to defend it. It will be but doing common justice to Homer to mention that Pope, in his translation of this passage, has taken a very unwarrantable liberty; describing the judges in terms of ridicule, when the original authorises no idea but of dignity. If Pope's passion for satire had not been irresistible, his respect for his patron lord Harcourt, whom it appears he consulted upon the passage, should have guarded him against joking so much out of season.

After thus exhibiting the whole of the evidence on this passage, we cannot forbear to acknowledge it as our opinion, that Mr. Pope, though supported by respectable authorities, has misinterpreted the sense of the original. From unacquaintance with the customs of the Greeks in such transactions, the general tenor of the description is doubtless become obscure, both in respect to the persons who address the audience, and the production, as well as destination of the two talents of gold; but, unless a different reading could be authorised by the known manners of ancient times, which we may venture to affirm is now impossible, we think the passage will not reasonably admit of any other interpretation than that given it by the historian. Mr. Mitford seems to express some diffidence in regard to the meaning which he has affixed to the line Τῶν δὲ κριτῶν, ἀποβνδὶς δὲ δίκης, &c. but there appears not to us to be any just room for such a degree of doubt as to invalidate the authority of his version. Admitting that, by grammatical construction, κριτῶν might be applied to the judges with as much propriety as to the litigants, yet the arrangement of the passage by no means countenances, and the apparently rational sense of it strongly opposes such an application. As the judges are represented to have just taken their seats, we cannot suppose the word Τῶν to refer to any other than *them*, without

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supposing, at the same time, that Homer is guilty of an imprecision which could hardly be committed by the most careless writer. But there is yet a stronger objection against applying *μῶρον* to the judges; even if the general signification of the verb *ΑΙΞΩ* could authorise the use of it for expressing any natural action of *Γεροντες* (elders) in a judicial capacity, of which, we must confess, we have some doubt. For by that construction, the sentence of the majority of the judges, though they had assembled for the purpose of terminating the dispute, would be rendered indecisive; and there would ensue the absurdity of the judges being judged by a superior tribunal, of which no mention occurs. It affords us pleasure therefore to join with the learned historian in supporting the interpretation, which, in our opinion, he has so judiciously given of the above passage in the *Iliad*.

In the fourth chapter, our author relates the history of Greece from the Trojan war to the return of the Heracleids; and of the Grecian Oracles, the Council of the Amphictyons, and the Olympian Games. Of all these institutions he gives a satisfactory account, supported by the authority of ancient writers; and in particular, displays great attention in examining, and either refuting or establishing the opinions of different writers on chronology.

In the fifth chapter he recites the history of the southern provinces of Greece, from the return of the Heracleids to the completion of the conquest of Messenia by the Lacedæmonians; and, in the sixth, gives a summary view of the state of the northern provinces, and of the establishment of the early Grecian colonies; with the history of Athens, from the Trojan war to the first public transaction with Persia. In the seventh, he presents us with a view of the nations politically connected with Greece, namely, Lydia, Scythia, Assyria, and Persia; reciting also the reduction of the Asiatic Greeks, under the Persian dominion by Cyrus. Continuing the detail, he next relates the accession of Cambyes to the throne of Persia; the acquisition of Tyre and conquest of Egypt by the Persians; the accession of Darius; constitution of the Persian empire; and the Persian religion. These transactions, as well as what are related in the section immediately succeeding, demand only a cursory recital in the present history; but in the next chapter, where our author returns to the principal subject of the work, he develops the history of Greece during the reign of Darius King of Persia.

Mr. Mitford, after delivering an account of the battle of Marathon, upon the authority of Herodotus, makes the following pertinent reflections.

‘Such

Such is the account given of this celebrated day by that historian who lived near enough to the time to have conversed with eye-witnesses. It is modest throughout, and bears general marks both of authentic information and of honest veracity. The small proportion of the Athenian slain perhaps appears least consistent with the other circumstances. Yet it is countenanced by authentic accounts of various battles in different ages, and particularly by those in our own history of Agincourt and Poitiers. When indeed the whole front of the soldier was covered with defensive armour, slaughter seldom could be great but among broken troops, or in pursuit. We are however told that a part of the Athenian army was broken. If it might be allowed to the historian at all to wander from positive authority, the known abilities of Miltiades, and his acquaintance with the temper and formation of the Persian army, added to the circumstances of the action, would almost warrant a conjecture that the flight of his weak center was intended, purposely to lead the flower of the enemy's forces out of the battle, and fatigue them with unprofitable pursuit. The deep order in which the ancients fought would perhaps make such a stratagem not too hazardous for daring prudence, under urgent necessity of risking much. Writers who have followed Herodotus in describing this memorable day have abounded with evident fiction, as well as with fulsome panegyric of the Athenians, and absurd obloquy on their enemy.

The ninth chapter continues the history from the accession of Xerxes to the throne of Persia, till the conclusion of the first campaign of that monarch's expedition against Greece. This important period of the Grecian affairs calls forth all the vigour of the historian; and our author has treated it with a clearness of description, a fidelity of detail, and a judiciousness of remark which must afford satisfaction to every reader.

The tenth and last chapter in the volume contains the history of Greece, from the battle of Salamis to the conclusion of the Persian invasion.

Through the whole of this work Mr. Mitford discovers not only an intimate acquaintance with the Greek writers, but a discernment well adapted for the investigation of historical truth. He appreciates the merits of those authors with a precision which reflects honour upon his judgment and learning; and by the force of these two qualifications, he has thrown more light on the earlier part of the Grecian history than all who have preceded him in the same field. The manner of some historians, of embellishing their works with characters drawn from their own imagination, he has not affected; but he is not therefore careless of elegance in his diction; and he

is every where perspicuous without prolixity. In a word, the volume contains so much historical information, industriously collected, judiciously arranged, and agreeably delivered, that we doubt not, will excite in the public a desire for the completion of the work.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XIV. 4ta. 6d.
Nichols.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XV. 4to. 7s. sewed.
Nichols.

THE Fourteenth Number contains additions to the History of Stoke Newington; and, among other articles, biographical anecdotes, relative to sir Thomas Abney, Mr. Caryl the commentator on Job, and Dr. Watts.

Number XV. consists of extracts from the Journal of sir Simonds D'Ewes, in the British Museum. This Journal extends from the author's birth in 1602, to the year 1636. The extracts are curious; and some of them throw a light on several occurrences in English history.

The great grandfather of sir Simonds came over from Guelderland, in the reign of Henry VIII; and the family afterwards acquired a considerable property in Suffolk. Our author was educated at St. Edmund's Bury school, and St. John's college, Cambridge. At the age of eighteen he formed a design of writing a complete history of Great Britain, and spent above twenty years in collecting materials. In the long parliament 1640, he was elected a burges for Sudbury. In the civil war he took the solemn league and covenant; but was turned out of the parliament-house by the army in 1648. From that time he gave himself up to the prosecution of his studies and literary designs. Hearne represents him, not improperly, as a learned and industrious man; but unfit for writing the history of England. — Sir Simonds died in 1650.

In one of these extracts we find a horrible character of the celebrated lord Bacon, in which the author, among other vices, particularly charges him with the habitual practice of the most sordid crime in nature. If his account of him be not exaggerated, it affords a striking illustration of these well known lines:

If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shaid?
The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.

The following observations on his lordship's new titles may serve to shew the humour of the times.

1621. By letters patent, dated the 27th day of this January, was sir Francis Bacon, lord Verulam, created viscount St. Alban;

St. Alban; all men wondering at the exceeding vanity of his pride and ambition: for his estate in land was not above four or five hundred pounds per annum at the uttermost, and his debts were generally thought to be near 20,000*l*. Besides, he was faine to support his very household expences, being very lavish, by taking great bribes in all causes of moment that came before him. So as men raised very bitter sarcasms or jests of him; as that he lately was *very lame*, alluding to his barony of Verulam, but now having fallen into a consumption of purse, without all question he was become *All-bones*, alluding to his new honour of St. Alban; nay, they said, *Nabal* being folly or foolishness, and the true anagram of *Alban*, might well set forth his fond and impotent ambition.

His lordship lived many years after his fall, at his lodgings in Gray's Inn, in great want and penury.

Anecdote of King James.—It fell out very strangely the next day (Jan. 10, 1621-2), the king riding on hunting at Theobalds, was cast headlong from his horse into a pond, and narrowly escaped drowning.

Riding of Lords on Horseback in their Robes to Parliament.—1623-4. On Feb. 16, just as the king was ready to go to the parliament, and divers of the lords in their robes already on horseback, and thousands of spectators ready to behold them.

Character of Sir Robert Cotton and Mr. Selden.—1624. On Tuesday September 28, going, as I frequently used, to visit sir Robert Cotton, England's prime antiquary. I there met with Mr. John Selden of the Inner Temple, a man of deep knowledge and almost of incomparable learning, as his many published works do sufficiently witness, with whom sir Robert, our joint friend, brought me acquainted, and we held ever after a good outward correspondence; but both of them being more learned than pious, I never sought after, or ever attained unto, any great entireness with them; yet I had much more familiarity with sir Robert Cotton than with Mr. Selden, being a man exceedingly puffed up with the apprehension of his own abilities.

Marie de Cleremont, youngest Daughter to Henry the Great, and Queen to King Charles I. described.—On Thursday June 30, 1625, I went to Whitehall, purposely to see the queene, which I did fullie all the time shee sate at dinner, and perceived her to bee a most absolute delicate ladie, after I had exactlie surveied all the features of her face, much enlivened by her radiant and sparkling black eye. Besides, her deportment amongst her women was so sweete and humble, and her speech and lookes to her other servants so milde and

gracious, as I could not abstaine from divers deep fetched sighes, to consider that she wanted the knowledge of the true religion.

Description of Archbishop Laud's Person.—An heave losse alsoe had our English church by the decease of Dr. George Abbot, archbishop of Canterburie, on the [fifth] day of [August] last past. Dr. William Laud, bishop of London, a little low redd-faced man, of meane parentage, succeeded him. I shall need to say no more of him here, because his owne speech, made in the starre-chamber, June 14, Wednesday, 1637, at the censure of some godlie men, being since printed, shewes sufficientlie his allowance and practice of the adoring or bowing to and towards the altar, with other tenets, which made me even tremble when I read it.

Sir Simonds D'Ewe's Character of Prinne, whom he visits in his Distress.—May 8, 1634, I departed from Stowhall towards London, and lay at Malden in Essex that night, and the next day in the afternoon came safe thither. As soon as I lighted I heard a particular newes, which much enfolded my heart, touching William Prinne, esquire, that had been an utter barrister of Lincolnes Inne, and a graduate in the universitie of Oxorde, who had lost one eare already in the pil-lorie, or a parte of it, and was to lose a parte of the other to-morrow. He was a most learned religious gentleman, had written manie acute, solid, and elaborate treatises, not only against the blasphemous anabaptists in the defence of Gods grace and providence, but against the vices of the clergie and the abuses of the times. He had been censured in the starre-chamber a few months before, for some passages in a booke hee wrote against stage-plays, called *Histrio-mastix*, as if he had in them let slippe some wordes tending to the queene's dishonour, because hee spoke against the unlawfulness of men wearing women's apparell, and women men's. Notwithstanding this censure, which most men were affrighted at, to see that neither his academick nor barrister's gowne could free him from the infamous losse of his eares, yet all good men generallie conceived it would have been remitted; and manie reported it was, till the sad and fatall execution of it this Midsummer terme. I went to visit him a while after in the Fleet, and to comforte him; and found in him the rare effects of an upright heart and a good conscience, by his serenitie of spirit and chearfull patience.

In this publication we have a long narrative of the murder of sir Thomas Overbury; an account of Car earl of Somerset, and his wife; of the death of Henry, prince of Wales, strongly

suspected of having been occasioned by poison given by Car of the assassination of the duke of Buckingham, &c.

To these extracts are subjoined several letters to and from Sir Simonds and his friends.

The Antiquities of England and Wales. Vol. I. The Second Edition. By F. Grose, Esq. F.A.S. Small 4to. 11. 7s. in Boards. Hooper.

SINCE our last account of these Antiquities*, it appears that Mr. Grose has been employed with unremitting assiduity in the prosecution of the work, which, though formerly such as to merit great approbation, he has at length been enabled to render far more interesting and complete. The edition now offered to the public is not only executed upon a plan better calculated for a work of this kind, but is farther enriched with very considerable improvements and additions. But the difference between them will appear more evident from a comparative view.

In the former edition the descriptions, on account of their unequal length, prevented the book from being printed in a uniform letter. The plates also being fixed at the top of the page, and the description confined to one leaf, the historical account was necessarily very often circumscribed. But in the present edition, the plates are on a separate leaf; placed opposite to the description; a mode of arrangement which has a far more pleasing effect. Exclusive of this advantage, the history of the various subjects in several counties is delivered, without interruption, in alphabetical order, and regularly paged; the want of which method, in the preceding edition, was a great inconvenience.

The additions now made to the preface are very extensive. The first which occurs to our observation is a code of military laws, enacted at Mance, by Henry V. with some additional articles made by the earl of Salisbury. Copies of this curious piece of antiquity are preserved in the library of the Inner Temple, and of the British Museum. We find that Mr. Grose has also consulted a copy of it in Latin, by Nicholas Upton, 1452; which, though in substance the same as the English, contains some articles not there mentioned, and differs slightly in respect of others. All these additions and differences are accurately specified by our author in notes. The number of ordinances, including those added by the earl of Salisbury, amount to near sixty. Referring our readers to

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlii. p. 81, 177.

the work for a specification of those curious statutes, we shall only present them with the last.

For them that use Bordell, the which lodge in the Hoste. — Alsoe, that noe man have, ne hold any commen weomen within his lodginge, upon payne of loofinge a months wages, and if any man fynd or can fynde any commen women lodgeringe, my said lord comandeth him to take from her or them, all the money that maye be found upon her or them, and to take a staff and dryve her out of the hoste and breake her arme.

This code of military laws is accompanied with a plate of armory, equally curious, and well executed.

In the preface to the edition now before us, we meet with a distinct account of the various kinds of druidical monuments, which Mr. Grose appears to have surveyed with his usual attention and accuracy. An account of some of these is delivered in the following extract.

Of Single Stones.—These monuments are the most simple and undoubtredly of more ancient date than druidism itself, they were placed as memorials recording different events, such as remarkable instances of God's mercies, contracts, singular victories, boundaries, and sometimes sepulchres; various instances of these monuments erected by the patriarchs, occur in the Old Testament. Such was that raised by Jacob at Lug, afterwards by him named Bethel, such also was the pillar placed by him over the grave of Rachael. They were likewise marks of execrations and magical talismans.

These stones from having long been considered as objects of veneration, at length were by the ignorant and superstitious idolatrously worshipped; wherefore, after the introduction of Christianity, some had crosses cut on them, which was considered as snatching them from the service of the devil.

Vulgar superstition, of a later date, has led the common people to consider them as persons transformed into stone for the punishment of some crime, generally that of sabbath-breaking, but this tale is not confined to single stones, but is told also of whole circles: witness the monuments called the hurlers in Cornwall, and Rollorick stones in Warwickshire.

By this article in Upton, which occurs among those made by king Henry, it is ordered, that public and common whores be by no means permitted to remain with the army, especially during sieges of towns, castles, and fortresses of any sort; but that they shall be stationed together, within a distance not less than a leagne, this is to be observed in all cities hereafter to be taken and yielded to the king, any one found with the army after admonition, to be punished with the fracture of her left arm.

The first are by the vulgar supposed to have been once men, and thus transformed as a punishment for playing on the Lord's day at a game called hurling, the latter a pagan king and his army.

Carnes.—Carnes or carneds were commonly situated on eminences, so that they might be visible one from the other; they are formed of stones of all dimensions, thrown together in a conical form, a flat stone crowning the apex, the ramp or ascent is generally pretty easy, though Toland supposes the druids ascended them by means of ladders. Carnes are of different sizes, some of them containing at least an hundred cart loads of stones. According to the writer above cited, fires were kindled on the tops or flat stones, at certain times of the year, particularly on the eves of the first of May and the first of November, for the purpose of sacrificing, at which time all the people having extinguished their domestic hearths, re-kindled them from the sacred fires of the carnés.

Mr. Rowland in his *Mona Antiqua*, supposes the smaller carneds to be sepulchral monuments, formed with stones thrown on the grave by the friends of the deceased, not only with an intent to mark the place of their interment, but also to protect their corps from wild beasts and other injuries, but allows the larger monuments of this kind, particularly where accompanied by standing pillars of stone, to have been erected as marks of sacrifices or some religious ceremony, such as the solemn convention, recorded by Moses to have been made between Jacob and Laban.

Kist Vaens.—Kist vaens, that is, stone chests, commonly consist of four flaggs or thin stones, two of which are set up edgeways, nearly parallel, a third shorter than the other two, is placed at right angles, to them thus forming the sides, and closing the end of the chest, the fourth laid flat on the top, makes the lid or cover, which on account of the inequality of its supporters, inclines to the horizon at the closed end. Mr. Toland supposes kist vaens to have been altars for sacrifice, most of them having originally belonged to a circle or temple, the inclination of the covering he imagines to have been intended to facilitate the draining of the blood from the victim into the holy vessel placed to receive it; he denies their having been places of burial, saying the bones frequently found near them were remains of the victims. These monuments are in the islands of Guernsey and Jersey still called autels, or akars and pequelays, i. e. a heap of stones. Mr. Borlace, in his *History of Cornwall*, combats the notion of their being altars for sacrifice, and on the contrary judges them to be sepulchral monuments, and in support of his opinion, urges the

the following reasons. First, that they were not altars, because on account of their general height, the priest could not officiate standing on the ground, that to ascend them would have been dangerous and difficult, and when mounted, his footing, from the irregularity of most of these stones, would have been extremely unstable, added to which he could not have been sufficiently distant to avoid being scorched by the fire, which besides several of the coits or covers, being moore stone, would not resist, but be likely to split asunder; to prove their being sepulchral monuments, he mentions a similar instance in altar tombs, which probably obtained their denomination from their resemblance to an altar, not from sacrifices being performed on them, and adds, that the area, commonly enclosed within a kest vaen, is nearly equal to that occupied by a human body. Mr. Rowland takes the middle between both, saying, "their being sepulchral monuments I deny not, but there may be some appearance of truth, yet consistent enough of what I have said of them, for they may be both sepulchres and altars in a different sense, I mean those of latter erection, because when the great ones of the first ages fell, who were eminent among the people for some extraordinary qualities and virtues, their enamoured posterity continued their veneration of them to their very graves, over which they probably erected some of these altars or cromleche, on which, when the true religion became depraved and corrupted, they might make oblations and other sacrifices to their departed ghosts."

Among the additions is a complete index to the preface, in which the variety of subjects rendered such an appendage both extremely useful and necessary. Many additions, amounting to several sheets, are also interspersed through the body of the work, which is farther improved by the accession of four descriptions entirely new.

The additional number of plates to the preface is four. The first of these is that of armour above mentioned. Two consist of the Saxon and Gothic architecture; and the fourth, of druidical monuments.

Many of the plates are re-engraved, in a style superior to those of the former edition, and all of them beautifully printed in black and brown. Upon the whole, this valuable work, so well adapted for extending the knowledge of our own antiquities, appears now with a degree of splendour which does honour to Mr. Große, and to those who have had the care of executing the technical part.

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Tristes in Verse. By a Young Soldier. In Two Volumes. Small
8vo. 6s. Mackleu.

WE shall not be so impolite to a gentleman of the sword, absolutely, and without qualification, to contradict the title he has prefixed to his poetical productions. Trifling, indeed, some of them are; but others deserve a different appellation. The first poem, particularly, in the second volume, entitled 'Job's Complaint and Consolation,' which is a paraphrase on some part of that noble composition, is of a very superior nature; and, though not free from trifling inaccuracies, exhibits strong marks of the simplicity and sublimity so conspicuous in the original. It would, indeed, do credit to a veteran in literature, and consequently contributes very highly to the honour of a * *young soldier*, who, from his age and professional character would, in the general estimation, have been deemed very unequal to so arduous an enterprize. Most of the celebrated writers, who have endeavoured to add grace and spirit to the sublime passages of Scripture, by a metrical version, have failed: perhaps no artificial combinations, or arrangement of words, can communicate such exalted ideas as are conveyed by the plain but forcible expressions, and majestic simplicity of the original. The embellishments of poetry, in which they have attempted to clothe it, like rich drapery on the Jupiter of Phidias, add a fictitious ornament that may amuse the eye, but can never satisfy the judgment. Setting aside therefore all comparison with the original, we recommend to our readers the following lines, as neither destitute of strength, harmony, nor pathos.

' Each eye that view'd me sparkled with delight,
And ev'ry heart exulted at the sight.
Because I shar'd my treasures with the poor,
And needy strangers enter'd at my door;
The wretch by famine ready to expire,
The helpless orphan found in me a fire;
I heal'd the wounded, sooth'd the inward smart,
And banish'd sorrow from the widow's heart;
The loss of limbs my tender care supplied,
And blindness bless'd me as its faithful guide.

* The author's name is Marjoribanks; and, we apprehend, Lieutenant in a marching regiment. His father was major of the 19th regiment of foot, and commanded the right wing of the British army, at the battle of Eutaw Springs, in South Carolina, where he distinguished himself for his gallantry and conduct. He was at that time in a very ill state of health, and died soon afterwards. A pretty poem, addressed to his memory, is inserted in the first vol. p. 103.

As bounteous show'rs that fertilize the soil,
 Rear up the seed, and lighten human toil;
 So men depended on my lib'ral hand,
 And so I scatter'd blessings round the land,
 Array'd in justice, and with judgment crown'd;
 The cause I knew not my enquiries found;
 I fill'd the sons of rapine with dismay,
 And stripp'd the brutal spoilers of their prey;
 Strong was my hand, unerring was my bow,
 And justly dreaded by th' ungodly foe;
 The warlike troops acknowledg'd me their chief,
 I shar'd their labours, and assuag'd their grief;
 First to the field undauntedly I came,
 And led to battle, victory, and fame,
 From day to day my pow'r and glory grew,
 As herbage moisten'd by refreshing dew;
 As trees that flourish by the river's side,
 Firmly take root and spread their branches wide;
 So gay my foliage grew, so fast my root,
 So fair my blossoms, and so sweet my fruit.
 I vainly promis'd on a length of years,
 By cares unruffled, undisturb'd by fears;
 And fondly hop'd (since mortals must decay)
 That age should gently steal my life away;
 Beneath the roof where first I drew my breath,
 I thought to feel the tender stroke of death;
 To live belov'd, expire without a sigh,
 And filial fondness close my feeble eye.

But while depending on a fair increase,

A noon of splendor, and a night of peace;
 A sudden darkness overcasts the skies,
 The thunder rages, and the whirlwinds rise,
 Pregnant with death the awful tempest lows,
 The lightning flashes, and the torrent pours!
 My flocks, my herds,—but what, ah! what are they?
 My num'rous progeny were snatch'd away!
 Th' Almighty's terrors fill my soul with dread,
 And all his vengeance bursts upon my head!
 My God at once withdraws his tender care,
 And ill's unnumber'd plunge me in despair;

The fellest poisons of his keenest dart,

Drink up my blood, and fester in my heart!

The subjects of these poems, in general, are undoubtedly not important. The author plays round the foot of Par-nassus, and content with culling the humble flowers of the

valley, shews no ambition of ascending to pluck the perennial laurels which adorn its summit. In his preface to the public he gives the following fair notice. 'I only entreat you to remember, that I have not allured you by mighty promises, nor endeavoured to raise your expectations high; you have no right to look for the great, the sublime, or the beautiful; I have given them as *Trifles*, and as *Trifles* let them be tried.' Of many witnesses that might be cited on this occasion, we shall produce but one; a little elegiac poem, entitled 'A Request to Monimia;' and which, we apprehend, will obtain a favourable verdict from his jury.

Since far from thee by Fate condemn'd to rove,

And absence dooms my tender heart to ache,

Oh! grant me, dear and only maid I love,

A gift I'll doat on for thy charming sake!

Oh! let me hope thou kindly wilt bestow,

The precious present I presume to seek!—

One lock that shaded thy enchanting brow,

Or gaily wanton'd near thy rosy cheek!

One roving ringlet that had wildly stray'd,

In hopes of wand'ring to thy snowy breast,

Or round thy neck had innocently play'd,

Ere Fashion's forms forbid it to be blest'd!

I'll fondly wear it nearest to my heart!

As the sweet symbol of thy silken chains,

Nor with the tender token will I part,

While in that heart the vital spark remains!

Close I'll conceal it from each curious eye,

No hand shall ever near my treasure stray;

All night upon my bosom it shall lie,

And be my dear companion all the day!

Oh! will I seek some solitary shade,

Where thought's unsetter'd, and where fancy's free,

There kiss the relic of my lovely maid,

And sigh, and gaze on it, and talk of thee!

On the whole, these little poems, though of unequal merit,

display evident marks of genius. The author is to be com-

mended for a diffidence in respect to his own abilities, for a

liberality of sentiment, and the general moral tendency of his

performances. We are however sorry to find one exception to

what he says of his Mule.

• Still

Still hand in hand with Innocence she's join'd,
Nor ever leaves meek Modesty behind;
Where she inspires, no loose ideas rush,
But virgin Virtue reads without a blush.

The 'True Story,' in the first volume, is indelicate, and contradicts the assertion, unless we suppose that the Muse had nothing to do in its production; which, as it is worse written than any other poem in the whole collection, may be easily taken for granted. The same lady, he informs us, 'has been his companion in solitude, the pastime of his leisure hours, his relaxation from severer studies, and his consolation in misfortune.' And we sincerely hope she will still continue to smile upon him, whether he glows beneath the vertical sun at Senegal, or freezes amidst the inhospitable wilds of Canada. Her ideal presence is no mean substitute for that of a visible companion; and unhappy are those military gentlemen who have no resources but what are external! His professional line is by no means repugnant to such acquirements as polish and soften, but not enervate the heart. The lyre is no less celebrated than the bow of Apollo.

Statistical Estimates of the Materials for Brewing; or a Treatise on the Application and Use of the Saccharometer. By J. Richardson. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Robinson.

AN art essential to the comforts, if not to the necessities of life, deserves more attention than has been commonly paid to it. Almost every servant undertakes the office of a brewer; and there are few who do not execute it with tolerable skill. But every one is probably far distant from a particular and intimate acquaintance with the subject. There seem to be two objects worth attaining, one to produce the greatest quantity of infusion of a given strength; or, in other words, an equal quantity of superior strength: the other, to procure the most agreeable beverage. The first is the chief object of the public brewer, and of our author, who offers his assistance to him. We are not indeed sure that both are incompatible, though we have reason to suspect it. The public brewer must necessarily obey the prejudices of those who employ him; and, in the more usual parts of his business, viz. the liquor intended for the beer-house, sometimes is obliged to employ other ingredients besides malt and hops. It might however be still an useful question, whether the increase of produce does not diminish the value? Thus the malt consists

consists of a saccharine and mucilaginous part; the first is more easily dissolved than the other, and the simple unchanged mucilage more easily than that which has acquired a little empyreuma by the heat of the kiln. Again, the hop contains a bitter of two kinds; one light, pleasant, and agreeable; the other harsher, more pungent, and less wholesome; the former part is easily extracted by a simple infusion in cold water; the latter yields only to boiling. In both these cases, the greatest quantity and best quality are incompatible: though chiefly in the latter. Some of the empyreuma of the malt is necessary to its flavour; and the liquor, without a sufficient share of the mucilage, is meagre, thin, and watery. As our author has ascertained the best method of producing an infusion of the greatest strength, we would recommend to his attention the different methods of attaining the peculiar qualities.

In the year 1777, Mr. Richardson published some 'Theoretical Hints,' on this subject, which were received with considerable applause; and he now pursues the subject in these *Statistical Estimates*. The meaning of the title, and the object of his researches, may be soon explained. Every one knows the use of an hydrometer and its principles; the saccharometer is an instrument of the same kind. Its application is however difficult. If we intend to try the changes produced in any liquid, the qualities of the liquid previous to the change must be known; and consequently this kind of hydrometer requires regulation according to the water which has been employed. When this is determined, the strength of the wort will be in direct proportion of its density, which is easily ascertained by the instrument. Again, after fermentation, the sugar and mucilage is attenuated; so that the same instrument, with proper regulations, may be employed with success: but the comparison must then either be made with the liquor in its former state of wort, or with a mixture of the water employed, with a given proportion of alcohol. In both cases we may attain an accurate knowledge of the progress and degree of fermentation, from its effects.

There are other instruments employed by our author, which can only be delineated by the assistance of plates; but this is the most important. Indeed his instruments are well contrived, his tables and rules appear to be adapted with sufficient accuracy, and he seems a competent judge of every part of his subject. His abilities have been reviewed by better judges; and the little we have been permitted to see has fully coincided with the favourable reports of those brewers who have been instructed by him. His own proposals are candid and

and clear: he desires only, for the communication of his plan, a proportion of the profits derived from it. It would be useless to enter farther into this work, which contains the result of experiments, to ascertain the most advantageous times of infusion, both of malt and hops; the time necessary for boiling, and other circumstances of the process: the whole is interspersed with calculations, which are neither pleasing to the general reader, nor easy to abridge. If Mr. Richardson's reasoning be any where exceptionable, it is where he attributes an inebriating quality to fixed air, and derives this quality from the quantity of spirit and air conjointly. In fact, fixed air exerts very different effects on different constitutions; and we believe frequently appears inebriating from attenuating other substances. If porter derives its peculiar qualities from the empyreuma of high-dried malt alone, the air may, from its attenuating quality, increase the narcotic powers of the burnt oil: if, as we have much reason to suspect, these qualities are owing to a particular ingredient, the air must have an additional effect. Porter, on the whole, is a wholesome liquor; but more than one of its component parts are, we think, pernicious: their power is either blunted by fermentation, or counteracted by the spirit, which is the consequence of that process. We shall only add, that this volume is written with correctness and precision.

Thirty Letters on various Subjects. In Two Volumes. The Second Edition, corrected and improved. Small 8vo. 6s. Cadell.

MR. Jackson now owns this production, which was for a time left to the chance of accident, and the sport of fortune. We early cherished it, while its author was only guessed at; for we discovered marks of spirit and genius, which seemed to show that our care would not be lavished on what was unworthy of it. The opinion of the public, the last and supreme judge, has so far coincided with our's, that a second edition is already necessary; and we congratulate the author on the success which he has so well deserved, but which merit does not always attain.

These little volumes are corrected in some parts, and enlarged in others. His opinion of self-production is supported, we find, by the authority of Dr. Tyson; but names make little difference, for there was a time when this was a common opinion. In the eleventh letter he observes, that

The debates in parliament, though certainly the best specimens of eloquence that the world can produce, have frequently

quently given birth to barbarisms which are received into our language, and remain in it. If an eminent speaker, in the hurry of declamation, coins a word, or uses a bad phrase, it is taken up by others upon his authority. There is scarce a session but what produces something of this sort, which if it gets into the public papers, is spread over the kingdom, and soon becomes fixed too firm to be ever removed.'

To the fourteenth, he has added the following remark.

'As the performance of a play is beyond nature, so is the writing of it. The plot must partake of the marvellous, the characters must be in situations too violent for common life, and speak a language unheard (but on the stage) in mirth or distress. Our late comedies indeed are exceptions to this rule, for they are some degrees below nature. The modern tragedies have lost all sight of nature, so that it is difficult to say whether they are above or below it.

'Those who think that Shakspeare's personages are natural, are deceived. If they were so, they would not be sufficiently marked for stage-effect. A strong proof of this is in the portrait of Lear, who is "four-score and upward." Were the character natural, Lear would be best acted by an old man: but every one must instantly perceive, that it requires the strength as well as the abilities of the vigour of life to perform it.

'I believe it will be found that all characters which interest us are over-charged, and not real nature, but what the dramatic poets have agreed to consider as such. If we hit this point, our piece is perfect; if we come short, it is flat; if we exceed, it is bombast.'

There are various little alterations interspersed, which we are unable particularly to mention; but they are in general advantageous; and the whole certainly merits the title of pleasing and ingenious.

A select Collection of English Songs. To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Origin and Progress of Song Writing. Three Vols. Small 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Johnson.

'I had rather be a kitten, and cry mew!
Than one of these same metre-ballad mongers.'

THE poet who suggests this idea was acquainted with every passion and principle of the human mind; and was himself so superior to every prejudice, that he could even laugh at, and ridicule the art in which he had no rival. There
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are many persons of learning and talents, to whom the most exalted species of poetical composition appears insipid and disgusting. Like those who, from their want of sight, are unacquainted with the beauties and charms of nature, they are astonished at the raptures of any one who pretends to the enjoyment of a faculty with which they are unacquainted, and consider the pleasures that are said to be derived from it, as the effect either of delusion or phrensy.

With readers of such a taste, or whose notions are so unhappily contracted, the editor of the present performance will find but little favour. How a man of considerable knowledge and very extensive reading, as he really appears to be, could spend several years in collecting the materials for a work of this kind, will to them appear a matter of much surprize. Lyrics are, in general, considered as the lightest and most trifling productions of the poet; and where the epic and drama are read without emotion, the former are certainly not calculated to move any of the finer feelings of the soul.

To prepossessions like these, no regular reply can be made: the best gift of heaven has been abused; but it does not thence follow that it has no intrinsic value, or is undeserving our notice. The Muse has a sufficient number of followers, who look up to her with devotion; and there are many to whom the lofty majesty of Homer is not more captivating, than the sprightly strains of Anacreon. From this class of readers, the ingenious editor of the present volumes may expect to meet with very different treatment: they will approve his taste, and applaud his industry. To such we would recommend the work; and, in order to enable them to form a judgment of its merit, we shall proceed to give a brief account of the design and execution, in nearly his own words.

‘There is not, says he, it may be fairly asserted, any one language in the world possessed of a greater variety of beautiful and elegant pieces of lyric poetry than our own. But so long as they continue to be scattered through a multitude of collections, consisting chiefly of compositions of the lowest and most despicable nature, the greatest part of this inestimable possession must, of course, remain altogether unknown to the generality of readers.

‘In order therefore to remove every objection to which the subject is at present open, to exhibit all the most admired and intrinsically excellent specimens of lyric poetry in the English language at one view; to promote real instructive entertainment; to satisfy the critical taste of the judicious; to indulge the nobler feelings of the pensive; and to afford innocent mirth

mirth to the gay, has been the complex object of the present performance.

The work is divided into four principal parts; the three first consist of 'Love, Drinking, and Miscellaneous Songs;' and the fourth is engrossed by a select number of the best popular 'Tragic Legends, and old Historical or Heroical Ballads.' These are again subdivided into several inferior portions or classes; and though they are not immediately pointed out in the different pages where they occur, yet they are so ordered that the attentive reader will easily perceive the particular subject of each class.

That part of his duty, which a former editor had considered as a disagreeable task, this gentleman has executed with the greatest readiness and apparent pleasure. 'Throughout the whole of the first volume, says he, the utmost care, the most scrupulous anxiety has been shewn to exclude every composition, however celebrated, or however excellent, of which the slightest expression, or the most distant allusion, could have tinged the cheek of delicacy, or offended the purity of the chastest ear. This abomination, so grossly perceptible in almost every preceding collection, and even where editors have disclaimed its countenance, or professed its removal, is here, it may be safely averred, for the first time, reformed altogether; the remotest inclination to such an offence being scarcely to be discovered, even in that quarter in which licentiousness has been so long suffered to reign without controul, and was of course with the greater difficulty restrained.

'Most, if not all the pieces which form the three first divisions of this work, will be found more accurately printed than in any former compilation; having been selected from the best editions of the works of their respective authors, and other approved and authentic publications; or corrected by a careful collation of numerous copies. There is another advantage which the present collection possesses unrivalled, and that is the great number of names of the real authors of the songs, prefixed to their respective performances.'

Of the songs in the fourth class he observes, 'that every piece has been transcribed from some old copy, generally in black letter; and has, in most cases, been collated with various others, preserved in different repositories. Many of them however, it must be confessed, are printed in the "Reliques of Ancient English Poetry;" a work which may perhaps be by some thought to have precluded every future attempt. But in truth there is not the least rivalry, or even connection, between the two publications. And indeed if the contrary had been the case, the inaccurate and sophisticated

icated manner in which every thing that had real pretensions to antiquity has been printed, by the right reverend editor of that admired and celebrated work, would be a sufficient apology for any one who might undertake to publish more faithful, though haply less elegant copies. No liberties beyond a necessary modernization of the orthography, have been taken with the language of these antique compositions. The reader must be, therefore, content to take them as they were probably written, at least as they have come down to us,—“With all their imperfections on their head.”

This is a concise account of the two first volumes, in which the compiler professes to give, as far as he is able, every song of real poetical merit in the English language. The third volume contains the musical notes; and the whole is ornamented with a number of vignettes suitable to the pieces to which they are adapted. In short, no pains or attention seem to have been spared in making it, what it is professed to be, a *Select Collection of the best English Songs*; and to print it in such a manner, the most likely to recommend it to the notice of the public.

The editor is certainly much to be commended for his rejection of every piece offensive to decency; but we cannot help thinking that, in this particular, he has been too severely scrupulous.

We cannot conceive why the following songs were omitted: *How imperfect is Expression some Emotions to impart—Free from Noise and free from Strife—Let Ambition fire thy Mind—In Infancy our Hopes and Fears—Bow thy Head, thou Lily fair*—and several others of the like kind. Their want of merit could not be an objection; for they are undoubtedly superior to many that are to be found in the present volumes, and have, besides, this farther claim to attention, that they are generally admired. Most readers will likewise expect to find here *The Friar of Orders grey*, and Goldsmith's *Gentle Hermit of the Dale*.—But, notwithstanding a few omissions of this kind, for which the editor had probably his reasons, the work before us is undoubtedly the best collection of songs hitherto offered to the public. If some pieces are omitted which the reader might wish to have found, he will find many inserted of great merit, that had either escaped the notice, or were not suitable to the taste of former compilers.

Prefixed to the first volume, we have an historical Essay on the Origin and Progress of National Song, in which readers of taste and curiosity will find much information and amusement. It is evidently the production of a person well acquainted with this curious and valuable part of the history
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of our country ; and contains many anecdotes and particulars of the early writers in this branch of polite literature, which we do not remember to have seen in any other place. In the present collection we meet with few or no Scotch songs. The editor gives as a reason for this omission, that he means, at some future opportunity, to present the public with a more perfect collection of songs, entirely Scottish, than any that has hitherto been attempted. For this business he seems peculiarly well qualified ; and we hope to find that the present performance will meet with such approbation as may induce him to pursue his design to its execution.

The Conduct of his Majesty's late Ministers considered, as it affected the East-India Company and Mr. Hastings. By Major John Scott. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

DURING the late contests on the subject of India affairs, major Scott has uniformly and zealously defended the conduct of Mr. Hastings ; and in the present pamphlet he continues, by farther observations, to vindicate both the private character and the public transactions of that governor. But while this design is the author's principal object, he is led, in the prosecution of it, to take a view of the conduct of those who have been most forward with their clamour against Mr. Hastings ; and in this part of the narrative he makes many severe remarks on the late administration.

An injurious aspersions having been propagated, that there subsists a corrupt agreement between his majesty's present ministers, the East-India company, and Mr. Hastings, major Scott discovers a solicitude to expose the falshood of such a charge ; observing that, if they have appeared to act in concert, it was merely because the late ministry, at one and the same time, attacked the constitution, the company, and the well-earned fame of the present governor of Bengal.

In the detail which major Scott delivers of East India transactions, the several parts of the narrative are so much dependent on each other, that a view of the whole cannot be distinctly exhibited in abridgement ; and we must therefore refer our readers to the pamphlet. But one or two detached passages we shall subjoin.

‘ With respect to Mr. Hastings's influence in England, whatever may be the degree of it, I can safely assert, that it has been fairly and honourably acquired, and that he may glory in it ; that there never was a man in a public station, so totally unconnected with the parties which divide this kingdom as Mr. Hastings is, that he has neither courted Mr. Fox, nor Mr. Pitt, and all he has ever required has been openly to be supported if

if he deserves support, or to be recalled if thought unworthy of confidence; he has never sought to preserve his station by cabal and intrigue, and has ever held that bold, decided language in Bengal, which every man of spirit must esteem him for. That Mr. Hastings has, by corruption, by bribery, or by any means whatever that would degrade the character of a gentleman, obtained influence of any kind in England, I solemnly deny:—not a shadow of a proof has been offered to convince the world, that he has resorted to such base means of support. Two or three very good things, indeed, have been said, as to the number of Indians now in parliament, but I have proved, that there were precisely the same number in the last; the only difference is, that the balance was then in favour of Mr. Fox, and now it is on the side of Mr. Pitt. It has also been wittily observed, that the Treasury Bench was under the India Bench in the last session; but here, again, I cannot help recollecting, that I have seen general Smith, captain sir Henry Fletcher, and Mr. Jacob Wilkinson, upon that bench, and I cannot help thinking that Mr. George Vansittart, colonel Call, and myself, were as well intitled to all those seats, as the gentlemen who formerly occupied them.

‘Mr. Hastings has been accused, in general terms, of disobedience of orders, and Mr. Fox attributed the wars in India to his disregard of the instructions he received from home;—but from this charge Mr. Dundas most completely defended him, by proving, that whether the Maratta war was politic or not, so far as Mr. Hastings was concerned in it, he was fully justified by the express orders of the court of directors,—and he might have gone farther, for those orders had the express sanction of his majesty's ministers; though one set of gentlemen appear now to be totally ignorant, not only of this circumstance, but of the very important intelligence transmitted to Bengal by Mr. Elliot, and inserted in the appendix to the sixth report of the secret committee.’

‘In the course of the proceedings in parliament on India affairs, the terms usurper and delinquent have been applied to Mr. Hastings; and Mr. Dundas in particular, has been called upon to proceed against him as a delinquent. I could wish the public would attend to a curious fact, which that gentleman stated in the most direct and manly terms. He said there were gentlemen present who knew that he had been applied to formerly to proceed against Mr. Hastings as a delinquent, but that he had peremptorily refused to do so; and for the best reason in the world, because he did not think Mr. Hastings was a delinquent, nor had ever thought him one: that he proposed his removal, from an opinion that he had forfeited the confidence of the native princes of India, and that it was necessary, as a step preparatory to peace.—I can aver, that this is no new idea of Mr. Dundas; for, upon a former occasion, while the Ma-

ratta peace was depending, he declared his intention of removing Mr. Hastings by bill; but he expressly stated, that it was upon the idea of its being a measure of expediency, and not from an opinion of his delinquency. It is very necessary this circumstance should be attended to, because a party in this country have wished to speak of the two committees, as if they perfectly coincided in their sentiments of Mr. Hastings, yet nothing can be more dissimilar than their opinions and their conduct. Every thing that Mr. Dundas thought Mr. Hastings could not do, he has actually accomplished, in spite of the obstructions which were thrown in his way by the miserable politics of this country; so that every cause of objection to Mr. Hastings is removed, and it is no discredit to Mr. Dundas to acknowledge that he was mistaken, or that, though his reports are fair and impartial, the conclusions he drew from them are contracted by subsequent events.'

Before we dismiss this pamphlet, we cannot avoid observing, that the author, in the course of his polemical vindication has, in a satisfactory manner, refuted the various charges brought against the governor of Bengal, particularly by Mr. Burke, viz. those which relate to the Rohilla war; the Maratta war; Mr. Hastings's treatment of the mogul, the vizier, the begums of Oud; disobedience of orders; management of the revenues; the opium contract; and the bullock contract.

In regard to those who affect to entertain any suspicion of major Scott's integrity in his defence of Mr. Hastings, if they would act with candour, they certainly ought to support their charges by better evidence than that of vague declamation or injurious surmise, which, however malicious, it is impossible for the most innocent person to refute.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

Dialogue in the Elysian Fields, between Cæsar and Cato. By Eliza Ryves. 4to. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

WE are told, in a short advertisement prefixed, that 'the argument and character of the Dialogue now published, are borrowed from the thirty-ninth of Fenelon's 'Dialogues des Morts.' This is very true. We cannot however reconcile what follows with so fair a declaration: 'but the Dialogue itself is neither a translation or imitation of his work.' It evidently, in our opinion, partakes of both in many places, though the materials of which it is composed are differently arranged, some sentiments diversified or added, and the introduction, which is a good one, new.—Without dwelling on a point of very

very little consequence, we can with pleasure bear testimony in regard to the performance itself, that the characters of the two Dialogists are well preserved, and the language is in general animated and elegant. We cannot always compliment the fair author on her correctness and precision. For instance, Cæsar tells Cato, that he alone of all those enemies who perished before the walls of Dyrrachium,

‘ Who at Pharfalia fell, or Tapsus slain,
Or glutted Munda’s well-disputed plain,
Thou, thou alone wert he, whose fame possést
With envy’s rankling venom Cæsar’s breast.
Each waking thought, each midnight dream display’d
A rival crown’d in thy exulting shade ;’

There is scarcely one of these lines without some defect. The first should have concluded in the following manner.

‘ ————— or *were at* Tapsus slain.’

However unpoetical these monosyllables appear, they are better than nonsense, as the line evidently is without them. As it now stands, according to fair construction, it signifies that Tapsus itself was killed. The second is no less exceptionable. To glut our vengeance or the sword with blood, are now common and obvious phrases ; but to-glut a plain which was well disputed, is scarcely intelligible : does the author mean its rage or hunger ? The next lines, where Fame is described as *possessing* a breast with the venom of envy, convey a very incongruous idea : to implant the sting, or infuse the venom of envy, would be poetical and proper. The last line is likewise reprehensible : to ‘ see a rival crowned *in* his shade’, instead of his shade’s wearing a crown, is but awkwardly expressed. Besides, what is meant by *crowned* ? If literally applied to Cato’s being invested with such a badge of monarchical power, the image is improper : if figuratively, to his being crowned with honour or glory, one of these words ought to have been inserted. We trust the minute examination of these lines will not be imputed to the captiousness of criticism ; it is honestly meant as a caution to the author, in respect to her future publications ; as we are informed by the advertisement that she is preparing some other Dialogues for the press.

To shew that she is more deserving of praise than censure, we shall quote the conclusion, in which the character of a patriot king is delineated.

‘ Blest in himself, and in his people blest,
With no vain pomp, no hireling guards oppress,
Fearless of ill, in confidence he walks,
Nor dreams of treason, that round tyrants stalks.
And ’midst his senate, when, in royal state,
He sits the auditor of free debate,
Candid he listens, nor with coward fear
To each dissentient turns a jealous ear,

But forms his judgment on this generous plan,
To speak with freedom is the right of man.

' In peace and honour thus serenely roll
His glorious days to life's extremest goal,
And when, mature in years, mature in fame,
To some bright offspring, worthy of his name,
The regal throne he leaves, embalm'd in tears
Of grief unfeign'd the reverend corse appears;
Friends, children, subjects, mingling sighs with sighs,
While each in energy of sorrow vies,
And round his ashes as the palm they bind,
Bewail the friend—the father of mankind.'

Avaro and Tray. A genuine Tale. By Major Henry Waller. 4to.
1s. Robinson.

The story contained in this little poem is as follows: Avaro walking out with his gun, in frosty weather, the ice gives way with him, and he falls into a pond. Tray immediately runs to the house of Eugenio, and by his significant gestures prevails on that gentleman to accompany him to the place where his master lay almost drowned. Avaro being extricated from his disagreeable situation, proceeds on his shooting expedition, but without success: perceiving night coming on, and reflecting he had nothing to eat for supper, kills for that purpose a tame magpye, the favourite of Eugenio. Tray is soon afterwards accused of killing and eating part of a sheep;

' Which sheep, most likely, he had found
Dead—or, by accident—'twas drown'd.'

A farmer demands five shillings of his master for satisfaction, but he preserves a perfect consistency of character, and

' At once by his—sagacious lord,
Poor Tray—was sentenc'd to the cord.'

The author informs us that the story is true, and that he composed the poem in less than ten hours; and we give full credit to both assertions. As to the first, to our disgrace be it spoken, similar instances of barbarity towards the brute creation are constantly to be met with; and a visible deficiency of the *limæ labor* assures us of the latter. The mode of pointing adopted by this gentleman is reprehensible. We can see no kind of use in the long pause or break often placed, as the reader must observe, in the four lines we have quoted, when not even a comma was required. Numberless instances of a similar kind might be selected. A *jeu d'esprit* however, like the present, merits not the rigour of criticism. Its intention is good, and such a character as Avaro's deserves to be stigmatized.

Ode to Robert Brooke, Esq. occasioned by the Death of Hyder Ally.
By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Doddsley.

The measure adopted by Mr. Irvine is of a peculiar kind, and first used by Mr. Jones, in the translation of a Persian ode. The present opens in a style truly Oriental, and we apprehend rather approaching towards the bombast.

'Soft as the breath of zephyrs warm,
That steals along the winding vale,
The rumour of his fortune came;
Till, like the forest-rending storm,
The air was loaded with the tale,
That veil'd in death the tyrant's shame.'

On the whole, this performance has more merit, considered as a tribute to friendship, than as a sacrifice to the Muses.

The Encomium, a Poem. Addressed to his Royal Highness George, Prince of Wales. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

A miserable performance, written probably by the author of a poem entitled 'Peace,' of which we gave an account in our Review for February last, page 153. That indeed exhibited a greater variety of defects; for but little more can be said against the present, than that it is a continued string of absurd images and turgid expressions.

Verses to the Right Hon. William Pitt. 4to. 1s. Debrett.

This versifier is such an adept in the art of writing obscurely, that we must defer passing judgment upon his production until his meaning be explained.

Poems on various Subjects. By John Powell, B. A. 8vo. No Price, or Bookseller's Name.

These poems consist chiefly of odes and elegies, but in none of them do we meet with any emanation of genius. The odes are destitute of spirit, and the elegies of pathos.

The Death of Sir Barnard Turner, Knt. An Elegiac Tale. 1s. Printed for the Author.

A more wretched attempt at elegy can hardly be conceived.

Vanity of Fame, a Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray.

This poem is avowedly written in imitation of Pope's didactic Essays; and the author has copied his model with a degree of success. That he is a young writer, defective as yet in judicious arrangement, and not free from inaccuracies, is evident in several places; but in these respects it is possible that he may improve; and when his own poetical fund increases, he may avail himself less of the assistance for which, in this poem, we find he has on some occasions had recourse to Mr. Pope.

Cadwallarian Elegies. 4to. 3s. 6d. Rich.

The design of this production is convivial humour, in which the author's talents seem not unaccommodated to his purpose; but its tendency is often so immoral, that it must necessarily incur our reprehension.

A poetical Epistle to a Friend in the Country. 4to. 1s. Faulder.

In this Epistle there is no regular plan, nor any variety of interesting observations. Some passages likewise seem to want emendation, particularly the following couplet:

'But HE, whose eye thro' Nature's womb can dart
A spark divine, infus'd in ev'ry heart.'

We cannot by any means applaud this writer's animadversions on the very eminent author of the *Lives of the English Poets*, whose works, notwithstanding some few peculiarities, will descend to posterity with applause, and confer an honour on the country and the age in which he lived.

The author of this Epistle is far from being a despicable poet. The general strain of his versification is elevated and harmonious; and as this is said to be his 'first performance,' there is no doubt, but that he is capable of producing a work of much greater importance than the present.

M E D I C A L.

Cases in Surgery; with Introductions, Operations, and Remarks.
By Joseph Warner, F.R.S. Fourth Edition. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Johnson.

The reputation of this volume is already sufficiently established. It is now only necessary to observe, that the present edition is somewhat augmented. Several cases are published in it, to enforce the author's opinion, that in concussions of the brain only, the application of the trepan, on the wounded part, is essentially necessary. Indeed, if the symptoms are alarming, and any particular part seems to have suffered by the blow, the precaution is certainly proper; but it cannot, and on many accounts it should not, be an universal rule.

Some cases, in which the operation for the empyema was performed successfully, are now added. In these, the diagnosis was remarkably clear; but the event was not always successful. In the only instance of hydrops pectoris it failed. We have already considered this subject, in our review of the second volume of Mr. Bell's *Surgery*, and the facts of our present author do not disprove our arguments, or materially affect our opinion.

The next subject is the effects of an ounce of tinctura thebaica on a man. They are nearly the same as Dr. Mead found when opium was given to a dog. The pulse was remarkably slower. The dissection of a scrophulous patient, and the operation

ration for the bubonocoele, afford nothing very particular. In the last instance, a mortified part of the omentum was cut off, without any supervening hæmorrhage. The last cases are of stones formed in the urethra, and escaping spontaneously by laceration: two plates, more particularly descriptive of their appearance, are also subjoined. On the whole, there is much practical information in this volume; and the additions certainly deserve attention.

Observations on Poisons; and on the Use of Mercury in the Cure of obstinate Dysenteries. By Thomas Houlston, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

This little pamphlet chiefly consists of cases, already public, in different collections, and now first brought together into one view. The whole is introduced by a summary account of poisons in general, in which we find little that is remarkable. On the subject of mineral poisons, our author's chief object is to recommend a solution of an alkali to decompose the salt, and to render it less offensive. This it will in some measure effect in corrosive sublimate, the common medicine employed; but in emetic tartar, and a few other metallic salts, it may rather increase the injury. We by no means think that it will be useful in making arsenic more soluble; and perhaps sulphur might, on that account, be more efficacious.

The effects of the hemlock dropwort, we have already considered. Our author has added a plate to distinguish it from the buniun bulbocastanum, or pignut; but has not, in other respects, materially elucidated the subject. The directions for recovering those who are dying from the effects of spirits, consist in the applications of different stimulants, and the warm bath. We are surprised that, in obviating the effects of sedative impressions, he has not fully insisted on the good consequences which are said to result from immediate immersion into cold water: perhaps the efficacy of no one remedy is better established.

In the canine madness, our author recommends salivation; but he has not properly limited the time for using it, nor urged so strongly as he ought, the necessity for deep scarifications, large discharges from, or even extirpation of, the part bitten. In obstinate dysenteries, he advises also the use of mercury; but, from his cases, the remedy seems to be confined to those in whom the disease is complicated with a biliary complaint, by which it is probably supported. This little miscellaneous pamphlet concludes with an account of Dr. Maryatt's dry vomit. Five grains, consisting of equal parts of blue vitriol and tartar emetic, produce no very severe operation. This may appear surprising; but we can confirm Dr. Houlston's account from our own experience.

NOVELS.

The Sentimental Deceiver; or, History of Miss Hammond. By a Lady. 12mo. 3s. Lane.

This is said to be the first essay of a female pen, and of one who, 'from a situation of affluence and elegance, is unfortunately reduced to a reliance on the generosity of her friends for maintenance and support.' At this relation, Criticism must drop her pen, and smooth her wrinkles: every fault is softened into a kindred excellence, and every beauty magnified. We know not whether it is owing to the author's own story, but we think we perceive in this little volume some tenderness and delicacy: a moral tendency enforced by examples, perhaps too common, but certainly interesting and entertaining.

Imogen, a Pastoral Romance, from the ancient British. 2 Vols. 5s. Lane.

Whether this be really a translation from the Welsh, and the original of great antiquity, as the editor affirms, it is impossible for us to determine without farther evidence. But we do not hesitate to pronounce that it abounds with tender sentiments, pleasing description, and an innocent simplicity of manners.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Scripture Lexicon: or a Dictionary of above Three Thousand proper Names of Persons and Places, mentioned in the Bible; with the Etymon or Derivation, and the Description of the greater Part of them, divided into Syllables: with their proper Accentuations. Together with the Explanation of many Words and Things in the Bible, which are not generally understood. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

In this Lexicon the compiler has divided each word into syllables, and marked it by an accent, in order to ascertain the pronunciation. He has then subjoined the derivation, and such other geographical, biographical, and historical remarks, as may be of general utility. We have seen several former publications, resembling the present, in the etymological part: namely, an Alphabetical Table of Names mentioned in the Scriptures, composed by Robert F. Herrey, and annexed to an edition of the Bible, in quarto, printed in 1578; an Interpretation of Names, &c. by Ed. Lyford, in 1655; an Alphabetical Explanation of Names, &c. subjoined to Calmet's Dictionary; and some others. But the present work is formed upon a more extensive plan.

Our author, in his etymologies, seems to have followed master Herrey too implicitly. Take an instance from the first page.

A'B-A-NA (i. e. stony; a building; father! I beseech now.) A river of Damascus in Syria. Its source supposed to be at the foot of mount Libanus towards the east.

Hebrew

Hebrew names are split into parts, and etymologies formed, with great facility. But it must be a strong imagination which can find any analogy between two or three of these derivations and a river.

In some instances the accents are placed erroneously. Examples :

Æ'-NE-AS, for Ænéas.

AN-TI-PA'-TER, for Antip'ater.

AN-TI-PA'TRIS, for Antip'atris.

AN-DRO'N I-CUS, for Andronicus. The first syllable in νικη, victoria, is always long; as αφειλετο νικην. Hom. Il. xvii. 177. Ib. iii. 457. So Bereníce. Juv. Sat. vi. 155; and Eunice.

SA'-BE-ANS, for Sabéans, &c.

Sometimes we meet with other slight inaccuracies, as

CHE'R-U-BIMS and SE'RA-PHIMS, for cherubim and seraphim: *im* is the plural termination in the Hebrew, and the addition of the *s* makes another plural, which is as improper as it would be to say *phenomenas*, *criteriae*, &c.

DO'R-CAS is defined a female roebuck. We do not recollect ever hearing of a female roebuck, or a female ram.

If the author had been more critically exact in these little articles, his work would have been much more valuable.

An Exposition of Isaiah's Vision, Chap. IV. By Robert Ingram, A.M. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

The generality of writers, who have attempted to explain prophetic visions, have amused themselves and their readers with many groundless and fanciful conjectures. Of this exposition we can only say, that it has an air of plausibility; and of the writer, that he appears to be a serious, pious, and respectable divine.

An Introduction to the Reading of the Holy Bible. 12mo. 1s. Johnson.

This work was written several years since by a lady of distinction, and printed in Ireland. Two or three editions afterwards appeared in England. The excellent writer is still living; but this impression is published without her authority, and is altered in many places.

The work itself is composed in a style of unaffected simplicity; and is calculated to answer the benevolent purpose for which it was originally designed. We cannot however, on this occasion, forbear censuring the indelicacy of those who take the liberty to publish the works of living authors, with defalcations and alterations, without their consent.

A Sermon preached on the 29th of July 1784, the late Day of National Thanksgiving. By Newcome Cappe. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

Mr. Cappe considers the late peace as the termination of a bloody, an extended, and expensive war; and he adds, in the opinion

opinion of many good and wise men, unjust in its principle, unpolitic in its progress, and unfortunate in its result. From these circumstances, he shews the great reason which we have to rejoice in the providence of God, for the restoration of our tranquillity.—His discourse is animated and oratorical.

P O L I T I C A L.

Facts fully established respecting the Game Laws. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Dilly.

This author is so very angry with the Game Laws, that he shoots beyond his mark.—

Game Laws are oppressive,
They are not observed, ergo
They should be repealed.

We differ in our conclusion; and if the major and minor are true, think it may be very different. But there is another view of the subject.

The severity of the Game Laws encourages poachers, and the different tribes of nocturnal depredators, so that the fair sportsman is disappointed of his prey; but, on the other hand, game is more generally diffused, and the community, on the whole, is not injured. We own that we wish for a repeal of these laws as badges of slavery, and attempts at monopoly: if our author's facts are true, in every other respect they are of little consequence.

We can pay little compliment to the execution of this work. The assertions are vague and positive, but frequently doubtful; the language is quaint, and the arguments inconclusive.

New Observations on Reform in the Representative. By Towelsby. 12mo. 6d. Rivington.

Those who have written on the subject of parliamentary reform, have in general urged the inequality of representation, according to the rights at present subsisting of electing members of the house of commons; but the author of the Observations before us takes a more particular view of this inequality than has hitherto been done. He remarks, that eight counties in the south and south-west parts of England send to parliament two hundred and twenty-two members; a number which is fifteen more than one-third of the house of commons. Another great disproportion he observes between the number of members sent by the county of Wilts, and those elected by six contiguous counties, running from the south-east to the north-west, about the middle of England. The six counties alluded to send only thirty-four members conjunctly; and the county of Wilts alone sends an equal number. Various other instances of similar inequality, unnecessary to be mentioned, are also specified by the author.

Some persons, Mr. Towelsby observes, apprehend that the regal part of our constitution may be endangered by a reform; but

but he declares it to be his own opinion, that instead of injuriously affecting the constitution, a reform would prove the best means of preserving it from violation. For he thinks that it would produce a house of commons more devoted to the national interest; and which, with a proper firmness in the crown, would be more than sufficient to baffle all the efforts of a mercenary opposition.

The author next considers the proposals which have been made for augmenting the house of commons. The county of York, he observes, proposes an addition of one hundred members to the counties only; but this, he thinks, has a partial appearance in favour of the landed interest, which ought to be counterbalanced by a mixture of the commercial and monied interests. He proposes an augmentation of one hundred and forty-four members to the house of commons; which would make the whole number seven hundred and two. Out of the supplement proposed, he admits that sixty be distributed to the counties; and that an addition be made to the members of the cities of London and Westminster. The Tower Hamlets, he thinks, ought also to be represented; and that after all these deduction, the remaining number should be given to new boroughs, consisting of good towns, of substantial and respectable inhabitants, in counties where the old boroughs are thinly scattered. He is however of opinion, that new boroughs ought to be very differently constituted from the old; as the right of suffrage is too widely extended in some, and in others too much contracted.

Mr. Towelby does not recommend the disfranchisement of any of the boroughs, as such a measure might give room for clamour on the subject of violated rights; but he thinks, that by the creation of new boroughs, the bad effects of those among the old, which have been deemed the most mercenary, would be happily counteracted.

The author of these Observations appears to be a warm friend to the plan of a parliamentary reform, but he discovers a judicious moderation with respect to the means of effecting it; and he delivers his sentiments with a degree of explicitness, well calculated for establishing the general principles on which it ought to be conducted.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Testacea Minuta rariora, &c. A Collection of the minute and rare Shells lately discovered in the Sand of the Sea Shore near Sandwich; by William Boys, Esq. F. S. A. Considerably augmented, and all their Figures accurately drawn, as magnified with the Microscope. By Geo. Walker. 4to. 5s in Boards. White.

In examining the sand of the shore at Sandwich, several minute shells were discovered, some of which are very uncommon. These are described in the present volume, and delineated with accuracy and sufficient elegance. The species discovered

covered

covered are not wholly new: they belong to the genera Serpula, Lin. Syst. Nat. 1264, Dentalium 1263, Patella 1257, Helix 1241, Turbo 1232, Trochus 1229, Buccinum 1196, Voluta 1196, Bulla 1181, Nautilus 1161, Mytilus 1155, Anomia 1150, Arca 1140, Cardium 1121, Lepas 1106, Echinus 1102, and Afterias 1098.

The author has given few trivial names, lest they should interfere with those given by Linnæus to shells of the same kinds; but this error might have been easily avoided, either by a diminutive, a local addition, or the very useful one of *oides*. The want of trivial names is a very material deficiency; and, if this publication should be enlarged by another plate, as we have some reason to expect, it should be supplied.

Conchologists, as well as the more general natural historians, find difficulties in determining the limits of genera. In the present work, the turbo and helix approach very nearly to each other; but all the compressed snails are placed under the latter; those with a produced clavicle, whether less or more, whether the aperture be round or oval, under the former. Though this step be in some degree an innovation, yet in genera, nearly resembling each other, the produced clavicle is advantageous to the distinction; but though it is useful in the species before us, we have reason to expect that it will fail if applied more generally.

An History of the Instances of Exclusion from the Royal Society, which were not suffered to be argued in the Course of the late Debates; with Strictures on the Formation of the Council; and other Instances of the Despotism of Sir Joseph Banks, the present President, and of his Incapacity for his high Office. By some Members in the Minority. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Another attack upon sir Joseph, more pointed and severe than either of the former. The minority members, as they call themselves in the title-page, declare their sentiments with great freedom. They represent the president as unqualified for his office, and exhort the Society either to chuse a new one, on St. Andrew's day next, or to take two or three professed members of the opposition into their councils, as an effectual check upon his conduct. 'The president, say they, is incurably sick with the lust of dominion; he imagines himself born to rule, (good God! how little do men know themselves); and cannot perceive that he has neither the intellectual nor moral qualities of a ruler. Honestly he possesses—the honesty of a private man. Of the honesty of a governor, for which modern languages have no name, the Greeks call it *εὐνομία*, he is destitute. Sir Joseph Banks might make a very good clerk, a very good attorney, or even a very good treasurer to the Society; but the man who is to fill the place of president, should be something more.'

This

Very strong language. But this is not all. 'The charge we bring against sir Joseph is, that though not entrusted with any such power, either by statute or custom, and very unfit, from his acknowledged violence of temper, and from his incapacity to judge of literary qualifications, in which he is shamefully deficient, to be entrusted with it, he has repeatedly interposed, in a clandestine manner, to procure rejections of proper candidates, with the visible design of taking away the privilege of the body at large, and making himself the sole master of the admissions, in other words the monarch of the Society.'

The rejected candidates were Mr. Clark of Manchester, major Desbarres, Mr. Meyrick, Dr. Bates, Mr. Hallifax, Dr. Enfield, Dr. Berenbrock, and Dr. Blane, who, as this pamphlet asserts, had their certificates all signed by some of the most respectable members of the Society; but one was a school-master, another a country physician, another an army-agent, &c. and on that account, low men, and very unfit to mix with great folks, and gentlemen philosophers. Most of these names however, are well known in the literary world, and we can see no good reason why they were not admitted into the Society. It is something extraordinary, that not a single friend of the president has yet had zeal enough to appear publicly in his defence. The rage of his opponents is *bellum internecinum*, like that denounced by our ancestors against the wolves; but he, with an apathy peculiar to great minds, treats the puny assailants with silent contempt, and amidst all the din of arms, sits unshaken on his throne.

Provisions for the more equal Maintenance of the Clergy, without Alteration of the present System, or affecting the Property of Individuals. Small 8vo. 6d. Wilkie.

This writer submits the following scheme to the consideration of the public: That a tax be laid by act of parliament, with the consent of the clergy, upon all ecclesiastical preferments, not under the clear yearly value of 200l. in the manner following:

	£.	£.	s.	
Upon those of	200	2	2	} per annum.
	300	3	3	
	400	5	5	
	500	6	6	
	600	10	10	

Upon the two archbishoprics, each per annum 30l.

Upon all bishoprics (except the two smallest English, and all the Welsh, which are to pay 15l. each) 20l.

Upon all tithes in lay-impropriation, at the rate of 1l. per cent.

This he says will produce the sum of 10,000l. per annum.

In

In the remaining part of this pamphlet, he shews how this sum may be employed, for the more equal maintenance of the clergy.

The Calendar of Nature; designed for the Instruction and Entertainment of young Persons. 12mo. 1s. Johnson.

This work is divided into twelve chapters; in which the author has given his readers a general view of the most striking circumstances in natural history and rural œconomy, observable in the twelve months of the year. It is professedly written 'for young people from ten to fourteen, in order to inspire a taste for the most delightful productions of art, as well as for the principal beauties of nature.' This performance is the production of the ingenious Mr. J. Aikin of Warrington.

Female Monitor, or the young Maiden's best Guide in the Art of Love, Courtship, and Marriage. 12mo. 1s. Bladon.

This publication, according to the author's account, contains 'a Select Collection of Letters, Essays, and Dialogues in Prose and Verse, principally addressed to the Fair Sex, for their Choice, Conduct, and Behaviour in the Single and Married State.' The following short extract will give the reader a more adequate idea of the writer's style and manner, than any description can possibly afford.

'A good wife is a man's best moveable, who to her husband is more than a friend, less than trouble, an equal with him in the yoke. Calamities and troubles she shares alike, nothing pleases her that doth not him. She is relative in all, and he without her, but half himself. She is his absent hands, eyes, ears, and mouth, his present and absent all; she frames her nature unto his; the hyacinth follows not the sun more willingly; stubbornness and obstinacy are herbs that grow not in her garden. She leaves tattling to the gossips of the town, and is more seen than heard; her household is her charge, her care to that makes her seldom non-resident. Her pride is but to be cleanly, and her thirst not to be prodigal. By her discretion she hath children not wantons, a husband without her is a misery in man's apparel; none but she hath an aged husband, to whom she is both a staff and a chair.'

The discerning reader will easily perceive, what class of readers this publication is intended to instruct.

The Female Guardian. Designed to correct some of the Foibles incident to Girls, and supply them with innocent Amusement for their Hours of Leisure. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Marshall.

This work consists of moral and practical observations on a variety of subjects, which relate to the character and conduct of young women in general. Its professed design is to correct some of their foibles, to give their minds a proper tendency, and to inspire them with sentiments of delicacy, honour, virtue, and piety.

The

The public is obliged to this ingenious and benevolent writer for several other productions, which are calculated for the use and improvement of the rising generation.

Jemima Placid; or the Advantage of Good-nature, exemplified in a Variety of Familiar Incidents. Small 12mo. 1s. Marshall.

In this little volume the author exemplifies the happy effects of good-nature, and the odious and pernicious consequences of petulance and ill-humour, in many familiar incidents, which are related in a style suited to the capacities of young readers.

The Holiday Present. Containing Anecdotes of Mr. and Mrs. Jen-net and their little Family. Small 12mo. 1s. Marshall.

The Holiday Present is a small publication, like the foregoing volume, composed of amusing and instructive stories, intended to direct the passions and behaviour of children in domestic life.

Original Love Letters between a Lady of Quality and a Person of inferior Station. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Bew.

According to the editor's declaration these Letters are not suppositious. But the style in which they are written is no stranger to us, and gives the lie to the assertion. The Letters, however, on this account, cannot have the less intrinsic merit; and in point both of composition and sentiment, they are such as may afford pleasure to a reader of taste.

A Satirical Peerage of England. By Charles Coleman, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Lister.

This author presents us with criticisms on the mottos which decorate the arms of the English nobility, and the sixteen peers of Scotland. He affects to give historical, moral, and humorous reflections on each; but they are the reflections of malignity, rendered contemptible by their own dullness.

A Letter to Sir Cecil Wray, Bart. from an independent Elector of Westminster. 8vo. 1s. Bew.

The author remonstrates with sir Cecil on his opposition to Mr. Fox; but on this subject the baronet has already justified his conduct.

Fragmenta Antiquitatis; or Ancient Tenures of Land and jocular Customs of some Manors. By Thomas Blount, Esq. A new Edition, with Alterations, large Additions, English Translations, &c. To which are added Explanatory Notes, &c. By Josiah Bickwith, Gent. F. A. S. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. York.

At the decline of the feudal system, it became a frequent practice with the holders of lands to grant very whimsical tenures. Many of these still remain in Great Britain, and in other countries where military service had been established. The industry both of Mr. Blount and the present editor, in col-

collecting those curious archives, deserves commendation; though neither of them has properly converted their discoveries to the illustration of ancient manners. By their diligence, however, they have amassed materials, which may afterwards afford subject of ingenious speculation to some philosophical antiquary.

A Description of Hawkstone, the Seat of Sir Richard Hill, Bart.
By T. Rodenburgh, 12mo. 1s. Robinson.

The beautiful spot here described is the seat of sir Richard Hill, bart. one of the knights of the shire for the county of Salop. The description is pleasing, and may also serve the purpose of a guide to those who visit this agreeable retreat.

An Appeal to the Public; by a neglected Naval Officer. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This appellant is Mr. Campbell, said to be a naval officer of merit. Having been disappointed of promotion, which he had not only been promised, but thinks due to his services, he now lays his complaint before the public.

The Reply of Sir Roger Curtis, to the Person who styles himself a neglected Naval Officer. 8vo. No Bookseller's Name.

This pamphlet relates to a dispute between sir Roger Curtis and Mr. Campbell; the former of whom, in the vindication of his own cause, appeals to evidences of great weight. The controversy however, having no connection with literature, does not properly fall under the cognizance of a critical tribunal.

Precedents and Abstracts from the Journals of the Trustees of the Linen and Hempen Manufactures of Ireland to the 25th of March, 1737. 4to. 10s. 6d. Half-bound. Longman.

The institution of trustees for the improvement of the linen manufacture in Ireland, took place in 1711; since which time, as appears from the journal of their proceedings, the greatest attention has been given to the cultivation of that important branch of commerce. To the precedents and abstracts published in this volume, is subjoined an abstract of the English and Irish statutes relative to the linen manufacture.

A Rejoinder to an Answer from Mr. Clarke, on the Subject of Ossian's Poems. By W. Shaw, M. A. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Crowder.

This dispute has already been decided against the author of the present pamphlet, and admits of no farther consideration. Unsupported assertions afford no proof; and recrimination can have no claim to argument. The Rejoinder therefore is a fruitless attempt to establish allegations which have been refuted by the most satisfactory evidence.



